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ABSTRACT

Information related to selecting, training, and certifying outdoor leaders for high adventure pursuits, is provided by selected experts from five English-speaking nations (Great Britain, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States). Patterns of differences and similarities among these nations regarding outdoor leadership components and preparation strategies were identified, and these similarities and differences were explained on the basis of national characteristics specific to each country. Surveys were sent to 50 experts in each nation, to determine what is required to create a competent leader, how outdoor leaders are prepared in each of the countries, and why countries apply different techniques in their preparation of outdoor leaders. The experts ranked and rated 14 outdoor leadership components (motivational philosophy and interest, physical fitness, healthy self-concept and ego, awareness and empathy for others, personable traits and behavior, flexible leadership style, technical activity skills, safety skills, organizational skills, environmental skills, instructional skills, group management skills, problem solving/decision making skills, and sound judgment based on experience), and were asked if they would consider including these components in the selection, preparation and certification of outdoor leadership candidates. Results are compared and discussed and a suggested model of outdoor leadership preparation based on the opinions of the experts and called the PEOPL (Preparing Effective Outdoor Pursuit Leaders) Paradigm is presented. A six-page reference list concludes the monograph. (JMM)

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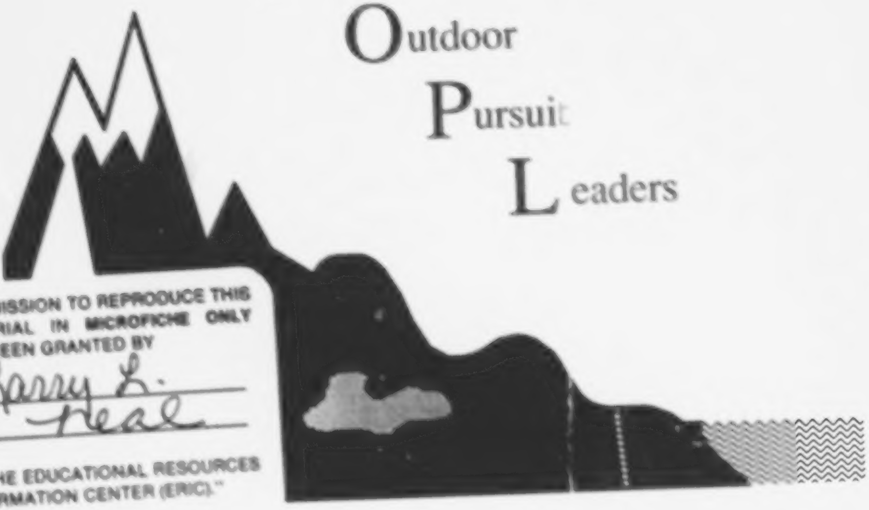

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PREPARING EFFECTIVE OUTDOOR PURSUIT LEADERS

Simon Priest, Ph.D.

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OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP PREPARATION IN FIVE NATIONS © 1986

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Last, and by no means least, my committee deserves a great deal of praise. Dr. Dennis Howard was always ready to read lengthy drafts and often at very short notice. Dr. Larry Neal was extremely supportive in promoting the publication of this monograph and in providing many useful additions to the study. Dr. Lorraine Davis inculcated me with the values and benefits of stringent research and sound inferential statistics. She never once minded late night phone calls or waiting for me to catch up to her on a long run. Dr. Michael Ellis acted as advisor, counselor and friend for the duration. He provided immediate turn-around on all submissions, smoothed the ruffles of my writings, and showed me how to build a conceptual research study from the ground up. An extremely busy individual, I thank him for allowing me to ride on his "time bound roller-coaster," albeit for a regrettably short while!

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to Dr. Malcolm D. Swan, Professor of Outdoor Teacher Education at Lorado Taft Field Campus of Northern Illinois University.

As an author, researcher, and master teacher, Malcolm has instilled a foundation of outdoor education research in many of his students. To this former pupil, he gave something more. He provided many new challenges, always had high expectations, and left me with fond memories of a grand and gentle man: someone who genuinely cared about people, about nature, and about the harmony that is always possible between both, as well as within each.

FOREWORD

by Phyllis M. Ford, Re.D.
Washington State University

Since society has become more and more urban and people have become less and less knowledgeable about the natural environment, those from English speaking countries have developed a propensity for using the natural environment for recreational and educational purposes. Whenever groups of novices venture forth into unknown areas they seek leaders to guide them toward their goals. With the development of the Outward Bound movement in England in the mid-1940's, there has arisen a form of outdoor activity known as high adventure or risk activity, a form of either recreation or education demanding the participant to perform difficult physical tasks in remote areas, often under adverse weather conditions and usually on potentially dangerous rocks, glaciers, ocean currents, and rapidly moving streams or rivers. The qualifications for being the leader of such ventures have never been verified to any satisfactory extent.

This book is a synopsis of a study designed to fill a gap in the body of knowledge related to selecting and training outdoor leaders for high adventure pursuits. It provides information from selected "experts" from five English speaking nations who are actively involved in outdoor leader preparation. The findings herein have direct application to the self-assessment of aspiring outdoor leaders, to the selection of leaders and to the development of training manuals. It is possible that incorporation of ideas from other countries may lead to the cross-cultural strenghtening of all outdoor adventure leader training programs. Further, the ideas generated from the study may lend themselves to the resolution of the ubiquitous problem of outdoor leader certification.

The study is important because of its uniqueness in presenting an international exchange of ideas concerning outdoor leadership. Persons charged with the development of outdoor leadership preparation programs in one country can only benefit from the expertise and experience of those in other countries. The analysis of the existing programs of preparation of outdoor adventure leaders permits the initiation of a theory of leadership preparation which links fundamental philosophies, attitudes, and approaches with local circumstances and conditions.

The model developed for outdoor leadership training certainly is one that can be followed easily in each of the countries included in the study. The author makes no claim to the proportions of the ingredients included in the model and even asks the question of what comes next. Nevertheless, the evidence is in: the recommended model for training outdoor adventure leaders in the five English speaking countries included in the study is clear, feasible, realistic, and relevant. It is a strong beginning in the standardization of the training of the leader of high adventure outdoor programs.

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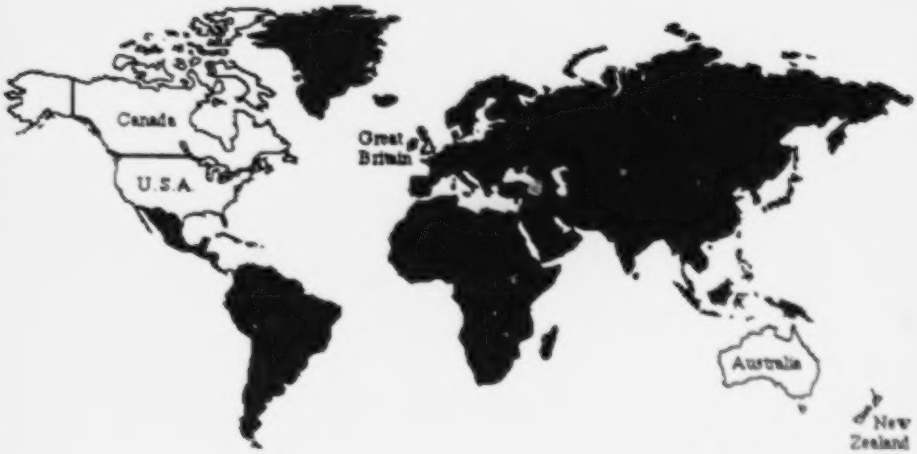
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New Zealand

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This monograph is based on an international research study conducted in the five nations of Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, and the United States of America. The study entitled Outdoor Leadership Preparation in Five Nations was conducted in 1986 and examined the attitudes and approaches to outdoor leadership preparation of one hundred sixty nine experts. Readers active as outdoor leaders, trainers or administrators will find the results of the study, presented here in this first chapter, useful in their outdoor education roles. Furthermore, the PEOPL paradigm on page 114 may provide some useful ideas for incorporation into outdoor leadership workshops or seminars.

AN INTERNATIONAL STUDY OF OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP

A present problem in North America is that with increasing numbers of people going outdoors for their recreation, there is a corresponding increase in severe accidents, environmental impact, and negative experiences. One solution suggested by outdoor experts has been the education of the user by competent outdoor leaders. To develop a pool of such outdoor leaders requires the creation of outdoor leadership preparation programs. Programs currently exist and operate in the five nations listed above. A close examination of these programs and the opportunity to share ideas internationally will inevitably bring about important improvements in outdoor leadership preparation.

Thus the primary concern of the study was to seek out differences and similarities toward preparing outdoor leaders among five nations. A secondary concern was to identify national characteristics, unique to each nation, and to apply those characteristics in explaining the differences and similarities. Accomplishing the study required that the experts from each nation be surveyed on their ideas relating to WHAT it takes to be a competent outdoor leader, HOW best to prepare competent outdoor leaders, and WHY the experts from the five nations might choose to do this differently.

The study had three major parts. The first part of the study was concerned with the **attitudes** of experts toward outdoor leadership competency. Fourteen outdoor leadership components were rated and ranked by the experts on their importance to the outdoor leader. The second part of the study investigated the experts' **approaches** to preparing competent outdoor leaders. The experts were queried on their preferences for selection, training, assessment and certification of outdoor leadership candidates. The third part of the study explained any differences or similarities in these attitudes and approaches to outdoor leadership preparation. Throughout the study, questions related to identifying and describing **national characteristics** were asked, and profiles of the five nations were developed.

The five nations were selected for study on the basis of similar heritages and common languages. Most important, however, was the fact that recognized outdoor leadership preparation programs in all nations evolved from the British Mountain Leadership Scheme. The premise of the study was founded on the assumption that since these programs began with similar roots, any differences in attitudes or approaches to outdoor leadership preparation were likely caused by circumstances specific to the nation. By controlling for commonalities, by singling out fundamental differences, and by identifying unique national characteristics, an explanation of **why** the experts of each nation might differ on **what** it takes to be an outdoor leader and on **how** best to prepare outdoor leaders would be possible.

This monograph presents the findings of the international study in a format that is easy for the outdoor practitioner to understand. Statistics are included in the latter part of the monograph, but the jargon has been kept to a necessary minimum. The former part of the monograph contains important reviews of state-of-the-art programs from around the world and literature closely related to outdoor leadership. Lastly, to aid the reader in the interpretation of this work, a list of definitions is provided at the outset.

DEFINITIONS

OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP IS ONE TOPIC WITHIN THE DISCIPLINE OF **ADVENTURE EDUCATION**; A BRANCH OF **OUTDOOR EDUCATION**.

Outdoor education is an experiential process of learning by doing, which takes place primarily through exposure to the out-of-doors. In outdoor education the emphasis for the subject of learning is placed on RELATIONSHIPS — relationships concerning people and natural resources. There are essentially four major types of relationships: ECOSYSTEMIC (among natural resources in an ecosystem), EKISTIC (between people and natural resources), INTERPERSONAL (among people in a group), INTRAPERSONAL (between a person and him or herself). The former pair of relationships are common to the branch called environmental education and the latter pair to adventure education.

Adventure education is an experiential process of learning about the out-of-doors, self and others. The primary aim is to develop an understanding of interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships. A secondary aim is to consider ecosystemic and ekistic relationships. The enhancement of self-concept and social interaction are paramount.

The **premise** of adventure education is that CHANGE in groups or individuals comes from direct and purposeful exposure to: Challenge, High Adventure, and New Growth Experiences. The **purpose** of adventure education is to bring about these positive changes in the form of enhanced self-concept and social interaction. This is often accomplished through a variety of adventurous activities including residential living, outdoor pursuits, individual ropes courses, and group initiative tasks. The **process** of adventure education involves the use of these activities to provide a group or individual with a task to accomplish. The task often involves problem solving and a challenge. The problem solving requires judgement, cooperation, communication, and trust. The challenge may take the form of mental, social or physical risk. To maximize safety, the risk is structured in a manner where the challenge is perceived as being enormously high, while the actual danger is kept quite low. The **product** of adventure education is personal growth. By responding to seemingly insurmountable tasks, groups or individuals learn to overcome almost any self-imposed perceptions of their capability to succeed. They are able to turn limitations into abilities and as a result, they learn a great deal about themselves and how they relate to others. Participants experientially learn to become personally astute by gaining an accurate perception of their personal competence and the situational risk.

THIS STUDY LOOKED AT THE LEADERSHIP OF GROUPS INVOLVED IN OUTDOOR PURSUITS AND ADVENTURE ACTIVITIES.

Leadership was defined as the process by which a person was able to influence fellow group members to create, identify, work toward, achieve and share mutually acceptable common goals (Tead, 1935).

A **group** was two or more people. The group was a unit which interacted under the leadership of the outdoor leader in an outdoor setting.

An **outdoor leader** was a person who, by the nature of vocation or interest, maintained an active role in the organizing, instructing, supervising, and/or caring for a group involved in outdoor pursuits or adventure activities, and who was legally or morally responsible for the safety, learning and/or experience of that same group (Sirois, 1980).

Outdoor pursuits were self-propelled recreational activities performed in an outdoor setting, such as hiking, backpacking, rock climbing, mountaineering, nordic skiing, snowshoeing, orienteering, spelunking, bicycle touring, kayaking, rafting, and canoeing. This description deliberately excluded those outdoor recreation activities which were motorized, such as snowmobiling, motorcycling, and power boating; or those which were animal powered such as horse riding and dog sledding (Swiderski, 1981).

Adventure activities were defined as per outdoor pursuits, but with a specific element of natural adventure and challenge inherent to the activity, and where the perceived or actual risks of the activity may appear greater than for average daily existence. These adventure activities usually took the format of physiological, psychological or sociological problem solving tasks for a group in an outdoor setting (Buell, 1981).

THIS STUDY SURVEYED TWO HUNDRED FIFTY EXPERTS FROM FIVE NATIONS: AUSTRALIA, CANADA, GREAT BRITAIN, NEW ZEALAND, AND THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

A selected **expert** was a person who by a personal vocation or interest maintained an active role in the development, training, evaluation, assessment, or preparation of outdoor leaders; or a person who was recognized by peers as being knowledgable on the subject of outdoor leadership; and who, on this basis, was selected for participation in the study (Green, 1981).

THIS STUDY EXAMINED ATTITUDES AND APPROACHES TO OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP **PREPARATION AND CERTIFICATION**. IT WAS CONCERNED WITH FOURTEEN OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP **COMPONENTS**.

Outdoor leadership **preparation** was defined as a process of selecting, training and assessing individuals on the basis of their competence as outdoor leaders.

Certification was a process guaranteeing that certain minimum standards of competency had been met or exceeded, as evaluated by the certifying agency following outdoor leadership preparation (Senosk, 1977).

Outdoor leadership **components** were several major categories of skills and attributes used to describe the ideal outdoor leader. Each component consisted of many related competencies in the form of an integrated collection of skills, knowledges, experiences, traits, attitudes, and/or behaviors (Easther, 1979).

FOURTEEN COMPONENTS OF AN EFFECTIVE OUTDOOR LEADER WERE IDENTIFIED FROM A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE RELATED TO OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP PREPARATION IN THE FIVE NATIONS STUDIED.

1) **Motivational philosophy and interest:** the underlying reasons which cause (or motivate) outdoor leaders to have interests for leading other people in the outdoor setting. EXAMPLE - a value of sharing nature with others.

2) **Physical fitness:** the agility, coordination, endurance and strength necessary to perform the tasks associated with being an outdoor leader. EXAMPLE - being healthy enough to work long hours under considerable stress.

3) **Healthy self-concept and ego:** outdoor leaders who are not entirely devoted to themselves and who know their true abilities. EXAMPLE - honestly helping others, rather than leading in order to be the center of attention.

4) **Awareness and empathy for others:** clearly knowing how other people feel under given circumstances, by the outdoor leader having previously been in such a similar situation. EXAMPLE - outdoor leaders imagining how a novice caver must feel, by recalling how they initially felt when sailing for the first time.

5) **Personable traits and behavior:** the set of model actions and one's personality which combine to create a rapport between outdoor leader and the group. EXAMPLE - unselfish, confident, honest, punctual, humorous.

6) **Flexible leadership style:** knowing how, why and when to apply differing approaches for sharing the role of decision maker. EXAMPLE - autocratic (authoritarian), democratic (equality), and abdicratic (laissez-faire).

7) **Judgement based on experience:** the ability to make a decision objectively by referring back to previous events. EXAMPLE - analyzing potential hazards or the limits of a group based on what occurred last time.

8) **Technical activity skills:** the competencies concerned with the outdoor pursuits being led. EXAMPLE - hiking, backpacking, tramping, rambling, hillwalking, bushcraft, campcraft, mountaincraft, mountaineering, rock climbing, sailing, windsurfing, kayaking, canoeing, rafting, bicycling, spelunking, caving, nordic skiing, etc.

9) **Safety skills:** those skills (specific to the technical activity skills) necessary to enjoy the activity in a safe and sensible manner. EXAMPLE - navigation, survival, weather interpretation, wilderness first aid, search and rescue.

10) **Organizational skills:** the skills needed to plan, prepare, execute and evaluate an expedition trip with attention given to the special needs of participants. EXAMPLE - logistics, scheduling, permits, equipment and clothing.

11) **Environmental skills:** the skills necessary to prevent negative damage to the natural surroundings or ecology. EXAMPLE - travelling cross country without impact, camping without leaving a trace, carrying out garbage.

12) **Instructional skills:** the skills required to teach the group other skills related to the activity, environment, and safety. EXAMPLE - teaching skiing technique in a series of progressions and learning by the inquiry approach.

13) **Group management skills:** the skills which keep the group dynamics intact and which keep the members on task. EXAMPLE - conflict resolution, effective communication, fostering trust and group cooperation.

14) **Problem solving/decision making skills:** the ability to accomplish tasks and overcome challenges by analytical or creative problem solving methods. EXAMPLE - brainstorming, projecting outcome probabilities.

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM AND A SOLUTION

The rising participation rates of outdoor recreation suggest a need for competent outdoor leaders. The problem and one possible solution are outlined below.

THE PROBLEM

With an increase of participants in outdoor recreational experiences, especially adventure activities, may come severe accidents, negative memories and environmental damage.

A SOLUTION

Reducing these occurences appears to be possible through education of the resource user. Such education requires competent instructors, well versed and practiced in the components of outdoor leadership.

A LITTLE BACKGROUND

More and more people are "finding" the great outdoors (Darst & Armstrong, 1980; Meier, Morash, & Welton, 1980). Leisure service agencies report a growing interest in the provision of "risk-related" activities (Dunn & Gublis, 1976). Increasing participation in adventure activities and outdoor pursuits appears to be a trend for the future (Rillo, 1984; Ewert, in press).

Roderick Nash, in his book Wilderness and the American Mind (1982), attributed this massive increase in participation to revolutions in intellect, equipment, transportation, and information. He felt that people have become more interested in and knowledgable about the outdoors. Educational opportunities oriented toward enjoying the "outdoor experience" are plentiful. Today, ultralight equipment and space age clothing make "roughing it" considerably less uncomfortable than it was decades ago. Superhighways lead to the edge of wilderness areas giving relatively easy access to pristine areas of naturalness and solitude. Many publications are devoted entirely to aspects of recreating in the outdoors. Clawson (1985) cited overall trends such as population growth, increased per capita income, shorter work periods, and longer leisure time availability as underlying forces which drive these increases in outdoor users.

Unfortunately, with this increase of outdoor users comes a consequential increase in accidents to people and damage to the environment (Ford & Blanchard, 1985). Often, as a result of careless treatment of inherent natural hazards, poorly prepared enthusiasts injure themselves in great numbers. In addition, many are slowly loving the outdoors to death, ignorantly destroying the very beauty they seek to enjoy!

Hendee, Stankey and Lucas in their book Wilderness Management (1977) mention the need for resource management due to an overwhelming increase in resource users. A considerable portion of their book is devoted to dealing with the pressures that humans exert as natural resources diminish. Current concerns for litigation arising from participant injury or death are also growing. Several lawyers writing on the topic cite various legal cases related to outdoor adventures (Frakt, 1978; Rankin, 1977, 1978; van der Smissen, 1975, 1979, 1980).

Some people approach the outdoors as a survival challenge: a competition of Humans against Nature. In any contest there has to be a loser. Often that loser may be either Nature or Humans; and all too often, both can end up as losers. In "beating" Nature, Humans leave the scars of conquest behind: extinct species, trodden vegetation, soil erosion and litter. In losing to Nature, Humans may also receive a share of injuries such as negative memories, social embarassment, physical damage, and occasional fatalities.

It seems senseless that a competitive scenario has to occur in such situations. Therefore, the time is appropriate to promote a new attitude of Humans with Nature, where the two co-exist in harmony, and where neither suffers at the expense of the other. To achieve this and to reduce the problem of the accidents and impact, an altered approach is necessary. The approach requires that people who go into the outdoors obtain adequate preparation and education before they attempt their first trip. Ford (1981) supported this approach on the basis that the urban dweller "cannot gain knowledge of outdoor recreation other than through education" (p. 119). Petzoldt (1974) contended that many people's first wilderness experience is often a negative one, confirmed by a series of miserable conditions which "indicate poor leadership" (p. 149). Therefore, it would appear that there is a need for realignment of outdoor experiences into a non-competitive mode via education and competent outdoor leadership. Such a change would inevitably improve the elements of safety, enjoyment and environmental conservation in outdoor pursuits and adventure activities. Priest (1984) cited three key reasons for requiring competent outdoor leaders: participant safety, environmental protection, and positive adventure experiences.

Several outdoor programs aimed at the safe, enjoyable and wise use of natural resources have made an effort to counter the growth of outdoor accidents and environmental damage. A common purpose of these programs has been education of the resource user. The success of these programs has hinged on the competence of outdoor leaders to provide the appropriate education.

If the premise that education is a solution to the problems elucidated is accepted, then it follows that the preparation of competent outdoor leaders is absolutely essential to ensure the effectiveness of such educational programs. Several noted authorities have called for the development of a program to train North American outdoor leaders patterned after schemes in other countries such as New Zealand, Australia and Great Britain.

Elkin (1982), stated that visits to wilderness areas are becoming more complex and thus the demands on outdoor leaders are also becoming equally complex. He ended his remarks with a comment about the need to prepare outdoor leaders for the complexities of the 80's. Mott (Yosemite Institute, 1977) echoed these remarks for the wilderness user who is often unprepared to deal with the outdoors. He felt the answer lay in appropriate preparation of outdoor leaders.

Many authors felt the task of preparing outdoor leaders was both the right and responsibility of tertiary educational institutions. McArthur (1980) discussed a definite need to ensure quality adventure programming through post-secondary education using an established minimum of accepted standards. McAvoy (1978) believed that the response to a future demand for adventure experiences would be met by leisure service agencies. These agencies would inevitably recruit outdoor leaders from a university program in outdoor recreation. Meier (1977) also suggested that centers of higher learning respond by adequately preparing outdoor leaders for future challenges. Petzoldt (1981) supported higher education programs, but cautioned that many post-secondary colleges were teaching courses in outdoor living skills and incorrectly calling them outdoor leadership. He was quick to add that judgement and leadership do not necessarily arise from skills aquisition, dangerous expeditions, and unprocessed experiences.

Nonetheless, all of these authors called for improved preparation of outdoor leaders in North America, at a time when other nations around the world were already operating advanced preparation programs. As we move closer to a consensus on what it takes to be an effective outdoor leader, the time is right to gain international perspective on the topics of selection, training, assessment, certification and competency of outdoor leaders. Countries such as Australia, New Zealand, and Great Britain have been formally preparing outdoor leaders by their own methods for many years. There is much to be gained in knowledge and application, by sharing ideas with these nations. The next chapter describes the state of outdoor leadership preparation in the five nations at the time of the study.

CHAPTER 3

OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP IN THE FIVE NATIONS

This chapter examines the past history and current curriculum of outdoor leadership preparation programs in the five nations of Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, and the United States of America. Drawing on present literature and on personal interviews with the people responsible for the creation and administration of present programs, the chapter demonstrates how the British Mountain Leadership Certification Scheme (now the British Mountainwalking Training Scheme), may have influenced those programs which followed in other nations.

The Mountain Leadership Certificate was, until this decade, accepted as proof of having achieved a minimum standard of proficiency in those skills necessary to lead school children in mountain activities. Today, the scheme no longer certifies leaders! It provides "the opportunity to gain minimum technical competence for leading parties in the hills. It does not provide a professional mountaineering or instructing qualification, nor a professional qualification.... ...The completion of a training course alone is in no way a qualification in itself." (Langmuir, 1984, p. 360).

Begun originally as a certification scheme, the program operated by the Mountain Leadership Training Board (MLTB) is now a qualification scheme for aspiring outdoor leaders. Today, the program trains and assesses outdoor leaders, and upon completion, the leadership candidate is given recommendation on areas where more experience is needed.

Rather than certify the individual to be a leader, the program places the responsibility on the candidates as well as on the agency which may hire them. The Mountain Leadership Training Board clearly states that "it is the responsibility of the employer or organiser (sic) to decide whether a leader possesses the personal attributes needed for leadership." (Langmuir, 1984, p. 361). Furthermore, they state that in non-mountainous terrain, the qualification should not be a requirement, and that there may be plenty of competent outdoor leaders who are known to possess the necessary qualities of leadership, but have not obtained the qualification. In no way should the existence of a qualification absolve employers from their responsibility of evaluating the potential outdoor leader.

GREAT BRITAIN

Great Britain was the first nation to institute a formal training program for outdoor leaders. The British Mountaineering Council (BMC), founded in 1944, began immediate work on the formation of a mountain guiding certificate at the request of its club membership. Instituted in 1947, the program certified professional guides for several years, and by 1960 there were approximately fifty practicing mountain guides (Price, 1985).

In 1958, Lord Hunt of Mount Everest fame was directing the Duke of Edinburgh Award Scheme. The award was granted to young people who had obtained a high quality of leadership, community service, and academic standing. The Award often made use of the natural outdoor environment as a medium for learning. Leaders were needed to take young people into the hills for such learning. An outdoor leadership preparation program was desired to help train leaders for these outings. Sixty five percent (65%) of the mountain rescues in 1960 involved poorly outfitted and poorly led groups of young people. It was hoped that such a program would decrease these numbers. The figure was reduced to a mere four percent (4%) in 1970 (Jackson, 1985).

In those early years, complaints from climbing clubs about the overwhelming numbers of new members wishing to be taught climbing skills and increased accidents with young children involved in school parties, resulted in a public call for consideration of a certification program for mountain leaders similar to the guides scheme. Early in 1961, an initial meeting, chaired by Lord Hunt, saw the formation of the Mountain Leadership Training Board. The role of the board was to address these problems and to secure training opportunities for individuals wishing to become mountain leaders (Parker & Meldrum, 1973).

Political differences between Scotland and the rest of Great Britain saw the creation of an independent Scottish Mountain Leadership Board in 1967. This board felt that the rigorous winter conditions found in the Scottish Highlands were not appropriately dealt with by the Mountain Leadership Certificate. They instituted a technically demanding version of the scheme and hence the certificate became divided into summer and winter Mountain Leadership Certificates (Ross, 1985). The first training manual was produced by the Scottish Mountain Leadership Training Board, on behalf of the Mountain Leadership Training Board and was initially called Mountain Leadership (Langmuir, 1969). Now jointly published by both boards, and called Mountaincraft and Leadership (Langmuir, 1984), this documentation provides much of the grounding for candidates attempting to gain mountainwalking qualification.

In 1971 an unfortunate accident, referred to as the "Cairngorms Disaster" occurred. A teacher in charge of a party of school students was caught out in bad winter weather and five children froze to death in the mountainous Cairngorms region. In the years following this tragedy, the Hunt Committee on Mountain Training, again chaired by Lord Hunt, examined the mountain leadership certification scheme and made sweeping recommendations which focused on doing away with the certificate, but retaining the training courses (Mortlock, 1981).

The Hunt Report raised some critical points. First, the committee stated "we have serious reservations about the value of confering (sic) Certificates on large numbers of adults who are not professionally engaged in mountain training.... ...Furthermore, certification in any sphere carries its own limitations, in that it tends to prescribe in a rigid manner the content of a course of training, making it more difficult to provide imaginatively for varying needs" (BMC, 1975). Second, the certificate was seen by the committee as having an over-inflated value, given that it merely meets a minimum standard in a field where the maximum might be more appropriate. Third, the granting of a certificate appeared to attract people, who otherwise might not have an interest in mountain activities. Fourth, requirement of the certificate by many agencies prevented the involvement of leaders who lacked the certificate, but who had greater competence than required by such a certificate. Fifth, Local Educational Authorities and other groups had inappropriately used possession of a certificate as a guarantee of the leader's suitability (BMC, 1975).

The Hunt Committee made three major recommendations. The first was that training programs should continue, but that the approach should be more varied in content, more flexible in nature, and more responsive to individual needs. The second applied to certification. They recommended the abolition of certificates, and the institution of a reporting method giving the conditions under which assessment took place. Essentially this meant assessors would suggest further training for candidates based on their strengths and weaknesses. The third gave thoughts on renaming the Mountain Leadership Certification Scheme (BMC, 1975).

Responses to these recommendations among the mountaineering community were varied. The British Mountaineering Council considered severing all links with the Mountain Leadership Training Board and leaving them to go their own way with the help of the various mountain centers. The upshot of the whole affair was a conflict between the "climbers" and the "educators" as each group had a vested interest in the outcome. The educators called for retaining the scheme in its present form and the climbers supported the reforms as recommended by the Hunt Committee. The crux of the issue was identified as whether or not a certificated leader was really a safe leader. The educators were of the opinion that a certificate assured competence and the climbers felt that competence came only from "hard-won experience" (Wilson, 1976).

Changes were slow to happen in the Mountain Leadership Training Board and in the opinion of some, the Hunt reforms were insufficient. Drasdo (1978) recommended more radical revisions to the scheme including one proposal of particular merit. He suggested training and assessment of candidates should be related directly to their expected roles as leaders. Preparation should be specific to regional areas which candidates were most likely to lead in, and also to the types of group members candidates might lead. A year later, only the three original Hunt reforms were adopted; and today Mountain Leadership Training Boards offer a qualification rather than certification of outdoor leadership.

In 1980, local disagreements prevalent in Northern Ireland and Wales saw these two interests develop their own training boards. Today, the four Mountain Leadership Training Boards offer independent preparation programs, but maintain an open communication network to share new curriculum ideas. For the most part the curricula among all four boards remain quite similar (Dodd, 1985).

The Scottish Board coordinates leadership preparation in several outdoor centers. Glenmore Lodge in the Cairngorm Mountains is the national training center for mountain activities. This center holds the assessment monopoly for the preparation scheme, while other centers in Scotland such as Benmore and Lagganlia are only permitted to offer training courses. The English Board allows several outdoor centers to operate both training and assessment courses. Plas y Brenin in Snowdonia, Eskdale and Brathay in the Lake District, and Whitehall in the Peak District are the most well known of these training centers. The Welsh Board operates a small preparation program out of Plas Menai (Plas y Deri) on the Straits of Menai in North Wales. The Board of Northern Ireland has a mountain center in Bryansford near the Mountains of Mourne and is oriented more toward rock climbing than to general mountain walking. Several colleges offer diplomas and degrees in outdoor pursuits with congruent leadership preparation. Some examples include: I.M. Marsh College of Physical Education in Liverpool, Charlotte Mason College of Education in Cumbria, Moray House College of Education in Edinburgh, Bangor Normal College of Education and University College of North Wales both in Bangor, North Wales (Priest, as cited in Ford & Blanchard, 1985).

The Mountainwalking Leader Summer Qualification Scheme consists of a week long training course, one year of logged experience, and assessment at an approved mountain center. The training and assessment procedures cover the following topics: "Party Leadership, Navigation, Walking Skills, Personal Equipment, Campcraft, Security on Steep Ground, Mountain Hazards and Emergency Procedures, Weather, Access and Conservation, and Additional Interests" (MLTB, 1986a).

Prerequisites for admission to the training portion of the scheme as a candidate include a minimum age of 18 years, twelve months of previous experience of hillwalking, and a genuine desire to lead people in the mountains. Prior to the assessment portion of the scheme the candidate must have reached the minimum age of 20 years, obtained a valid first aid certificate and logged a minimum of one year experience in mountain regions. This minimum experience is delineated as having taken place "in at least three different mountain regions, and a minimum of 30 named peaks over 600 metres should be ascended. At least 16 days should be spent in mountainous country, including a minimum of 8 overnight camps" (MLTB, 1986b).

The log book is divided into five sections. The first section has ample room for candidates to document their experience prior to enrolling in the scheme. The second section is arranged for the Director of Basic Training to provide a brief description of how the training was carried out. The third section provides room for the candidates to record the experiences they gain between training and assessment. The fourth section (page 29) is added by the Director of the Assessment Centre. Page 29A is provided if the candidate passes assessment, page 29B is provided for reporting strengths and weaknesses, or recommending further practice, and Page 29C is provided to explain why a candidate failed the assessment. Candidates receive one of these three pages depending upon their performance during assessment. All three pages, regardless of which is signed and provided, include a reference directed at prospective employers, encouraging them to take into account the fifth section of the log book. This section details the candidate's experience after assessment. Throughout the log book there are places for candidates to supply the name and address of a referee who will substantiate their experience claims and room for the signatures of various training, assessment and organizing officials (MLTB, 1986c).

AUSTRALIA

The three Australian states of South Australia, Victoria and Tasmania each offer a certification program in Mountain and Bushwalking Leadership. The Australian outdoor leadership movement began in May of 1969, when the Victorian Bushwalking and Mountaincraft Advisory Board (VBMAB) offered the first course, based closely upon the British Mountain Leadership Certificate Scheme. Adaptations of British training materials were made to suit locally specific settings and a few unique alterations have been made since then. These changes have included the addition of an advisor, a panel of assessors, and the introduction of preliminary appraisal sessions for applicants (Lingard, 1984).

The prerequisites for admission to the scheme are a minimum age of 20 years, successful completion of a physical fitness stress test, and practical experience at basic bushcraft skills. A preliminary appraisal weekend tests prospective applicants on their basic skills. If applicants are lacking in any major skill area they are refused acceptance to the training program and additional experience or outside training are suggested (VBMAB, 1983).

Upon acceptance, candidates attend an initial training session for one week. The training session covers such topics as: Leadership Style, Decision Making, Party Management, Navigation, Weather, First Aid, Mountain Hazards, and Expeditioning. After the training session, candidates enter into a period of interim training for one or two years. Over this period of time, the candidates are assigned to an established outdoor leader, who acts as an advisor. Under the mentorship of their advisor, candidates experience a wide variety of leadership roles, with many different groups and in a range of settings. These intensive and extensive experiences are recorded in a log book. The candidates meet often with their advisor to discuss the log. Once candidates have successfully met the minimum standard of apprenticeship experience, and have gained a first aid certificate, they are recommended for advancement to the assessment session by their advisor (VBMAB, 1983).

The assessment stage begins with candidates leading individual four day trips.

Their advisor attends as a back-up leader. A panel of two or three assessors also attend the trip. They observe the leadership performance of the candidate and, if satisfactory leadership competence is demonstrated, they recommend that the candidate be advanced to a final week-long residential assessment course. During the final assessment a panel of advisors and assessors observe and evaluate the leadership performances of several candidates under a wide selection of actual and simulated situations. At the conclusion of the assessment period candidates who meet the criteria for advancement are granted a leadership certificate (VBMAB, 1983).

The South Australian scheme's only difference from its Victorian counterpart is that the program caters specifically for school teachers. The other schemes are open to commercial operators and outdoor club members as well as school teachers (Hogan, 1984).

Applicants to the Bush and Mountain Walking Leadership Training Board of Tasmania (BMWLTBT) must be very experienced in bush and mountain travel before they will even be considered as a candidate. The result is a leadership candidate group of advanced technical skill level. This provides an opportunity for the trainers to concentrate on the more critical aspects of leadership development, such as conflict resolution, party morale, leadership style, environmental ethics, group dynamics, decision making and problem solving. The course also includes an opportunity for candidates to demonstrate teaching ability by presenting a lesson on a required topic to their peer group (BMWLTBT, 1984). The Tasmanian scheme offers a certificate of course completion and not a certificate of competent outdoor leadership. The trend in Tasmania is away from certification of the leader and toward the qualification of having completed the intital training as is current in Britain (Tomalin, 1984).

All three states in Australia make use of the course manual published by the Victorian Bushwalking and Mountaincraft Advisory Board. The manual, Bushwalking and Mountaincraft Leadership, details six areas of concern for the leadership candidate: The Leader, Trip Planning, The Walk, Food, The Elements, and Emergencies. Appendices list further readings, equipment, food menus, outdoor shops, outdoor clubs, leadership skills and knowledge (VBMAB, 1981).

No outdoor pursuits centers in Australia offer formal courses in outdoor leadership development. However, some centers are used by the training boards to operate the residential component of their leadership courses. Some leadership training is available within a tertiary education framework. Bendigo College in Victoria and several Colleges of Advanced Education throughout the country offer diplomas in outdoor education, which are heavily oriented toward outdoor pursuits (Priest, 1985).

PEOPL

15

NEW ZEALAND

In 1977, a provisional Outdoor Training Advisory Board (OTAB) was established, and funded for six years, to develop an outdoor leadership preparation scheme in New Zealand. A close look at the Hunt Report, recently published in Britain, gave the board a direction for development. They also looked to Australia and to Ireland, two countries who had created adapted outdoor leadership programs strongly founded on the British schemes (Abbott, 1984).

The board decided on several key points for their preparation program. First, the scheme would be open-ended and not present a certificate to imply the end of training. Second, the scheme would be flexible enough to respond to varying training needs of participants. Third, training would be offered at several levels. Fourth, a modular approach would enable people from a wide variety of outdoor activities to benefit from the training. Fifth, the scheme would be open to input from the many agencies involved in outdoor recreation in New Zealand and thus allow for an interchange of ideas. Sixth, the responsibility for assessment would lie with the participant and not with a panel of experts (Abbott, 1981).

The aims of the board were simple: develop a framework for coordinated leader training, advise existing programs, and act as an information clearing house (Toynbee, 1982). The unique aspect about this board was its role as an advisory agency. It did not offer an outdoor leadership program of its own; rather, it assisted other agencies and outdoor associations with their own training programs. As an advisory board, the mandate for action was oriented toward securing resource personnel for courses, toward avoiding duplication of training courses, and toward making recommendations on standards and course offerings (Trist, 1984).

The board also published a variety of materials including most notably a Logbook and an Outdoor Training Guide. The training guide contains suggested guidelines for outdoor leadership training and assessment of fourteen core modules: Leadership Theory, Human Growth and Development, Environmental Issues, Planning and Organization, Legal and Moral Issues, Finance and Administration, Food and Hygiene, Clothing and Equipment, Weather, Land Navigation, Interpreting the Environment, First Aid, Emergency Procedures, and Water Safety. The guide provides an opportunity for aspiring leaders to analyze their personal strengths and weaknesses, and to respond by seeking an appropriate source for further training and experience (NZOTAB, 1980).

The logbook is centered around the concept of self-assessment. It contains sections for entry of experience related to personal learning, general experience, and leadership experience. The logbook is quick to state that any entries should not be interpreted by potential employers as a guarantee of leadership competence and that the responsibility for accuracy lies with the owner (NZOTAB, 1980). A final section provides the opportunity for participants to evaluate their own leadership capacity. It is suggested that participants rank themselves on a scale of 1 to 5 for each of the fourteen core modules listed in the training guide (Allan, 1984).

Only one residential center in the country of New Zealand has any kind of involvement in the outdoor leadership training. The Outdoor Pursuits Centre of New Zealand, located near the North Island volcanos, offers a yearly course based upon the O.T.A.B. content, which focuses upon group management skills more than mere technical activity skills (Hughes, 1984). The New Zealand Outward Bound School, on the South Island, does not offer any formal outdoor leadership development courses. Several teachers' colleges in the major cities such as Auckland, Christchurch, Dunedin, Palmerston North and Wellington offer outdoor education courses (Priest, 1985).

Late in 1983, the funds allotted to OTAB dried up and the government refused to reinstate the board. The aims of OTAB continue to be upheld by the groups which were represented by its original membership. A recent change in the Federal government may see this program supported in the near future (Bramfitt, 1984).

CANADA

No recognized program exists nationally in Canada, but there are several provinces examining the possibilities of programs in outdoor leadership preparation. One eastern province, Nova Scotia, operates a scheme based partly on the British Scheme and partly on some of the New Zealand adaptations. Two western provinces, Alberta and British Columbia, are considering their own program and are looking to the Nova Scotian scheme for direction. Three other provinces, Ontario, Quebec and New Brunswick, offer small college-based preparation schemes as part of degree granting programs.

The only province-wide program which currently offers training opportunities is the Nova Scotia Outdoor Leadership Development Program (NSOLDP). Patterned after the advisory board in New Zealand, the program consists of an information clearing house, a service program providing instructional resources, and an open-ended course in outdoor leadership training. Willing applicants attend an outdoor leadership training session to obtain a grounding in some of the more important skills. As candidates, they apprentice in an outdoor leadership role and then attend an outdoor leadership assessment session. Upon completion, a certificate is not granted, but rather graduates are encouraged to continue their development as outdoor leaders (Drapeur, 1983).

The leadership preparation scheme follows a modular approach. The training and assessment sessions deal with: Teaching Methods, Problem Solving, Group Dynamics, Trip Planning, and Expedition Behavior. Candidates are left to their own efforts to obtain specialized technical skills and to obtain the necessary core skills of: Navigation, Survival, Campcraft, Environmental Ethics, and Emergency Procedures (NSOLDP, 1980).

The province of British Columbia has been investigating outdoor leadership preparation since 1978. No definitive answers have yet been obtained and most discussion has centered on whether any adopted scheme should grant a certificate or not. In May of 1981, the Federation of Mountain Clubs of British Columbia (FMCBC), a representative body of 31 outdoor clubs and organizations, issued a press release stating their opposition to mandatory leadership certification (FMCBC, 1981). A survey of outdoor leadership development in British Columbia, undertaken by the Outdoor Recreation Council of British Columbia, confirmed this belief, with only 16% of the 138 respondents preferring a certification scheme (Todd, 1983).

The Council of Outdoor Educators of Ontario (COEO) has wrestled with the issue of certification since 1970. A task force on certification of outdoor leaders recommended avoidance of developing their own certification program (COEO, 1977). About the same time, Cousineau (1977) suggested such a certification program be based on the results of his research. Following these findings, the council commissioned a work by Rogers entitled Leading to Share Sharing to Lead. In the monograph, Rogers proposes an outdoor leadership development model with certification of technical skills as a parallel corequisite to leadership development. The scheme itself is noncertifying and consists of three stages very similar to the British and Australian schemes. Upon completion of these three training and assessment stages, a fourth stage suggests continued updating of skills and experience for the outdoor leadership graduate. The unique aspect of the model is the suggestion that outdoor leadership is more than certification, but is rather life-long learning, the development of which takes place over lengthy periods of time (Rogers, 1979). The council has yet to adopt any form of outdoor leadership preparation or certification.

In 1982, the Alberta Mountain Council sponsored a Mountain Leadership Conference in the Rocky Mountains. Although the content of this first Canadian conference devoted to outdoor leadership was heavily "hard skill" oriented, the importance of the "softer skills" of leadership was well recognized. An outdoor leadership program is run for camp counselors by the Alberta Camping Association, and one for recreation leaders, operated by the Alberta Department of Recreation, Parks and Wildlife, also exists (March, 1983). A rash of letters to the editor of the Foothills Wilderness Journal (Skrastins, 1979) demonstrated the mountain community's concern with the possibility of mandatory outdoor leadership certification for these programs.

Several outdoor centers offer outdoor leadership training programs and deal primarily in technical outdoor living skills. The Yamnuska Mountain School, run by the Rocky Mountain Y.M.C.A. near Banff, and the Blue Lake Center near Jasper are two Albertan examples. The three most notable outdoor centers in Canada do not yet offer programs totally oriented toward outdoor leadership development. Outward Bound Canada has two schools: a mountain school in the dry interior of British Columbia and a wilderness school in the lakes area of northern Ontario. The Strathcona Outdoor Education Society has a water-based outdoor program on Vancouver Island in British Columbia. Many small outdoor education programs exist within tertiary education frameworks in British Columbia, Alberta, and Ontario. Some examples include: Environmental Education at Simon Fraser University and Outdoor Recreation Management at Capilano College in British Columbia, Outdoor

Pursuits at the University of Calgary and Outdoor Education at Camrose Lutheran College in Alberta, Outdoor Adventure at Laurentian University and Outdoor Recreation at Lakehead University in Ontario, Outdoor Education at John Abbott College in Quebec, and at the University of New Brunswick (Priest as cited in Ford & Blanchard, 1985).

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The Outward Bound Movement crossed the ocean to North America and landed with the first school located in Colorado during the summer of 1963. In 1965, a chief instructor of Outward Bound, Paul Petzoldt, founded the National Outdoor Leadership School (NOLS) in Wyoming. For over twenty years, the center has operated an outdoor leadership preparation program based on remnants of the original British scheme. The mandate of NOLS was "to train leaders capable of conducting all-round wilderness programs in a safe and rewarding manner" (Petzoldt, 1974). To this end the school grants a certificate of outdoor leadership at three levels: outdoor educator, outdoor leader and instructor (NOLS, 1984).

In 1978, Petzoldt left the National Outdoor Leadership School to create the Wilderness Education Association (WEA) in Idaho. The association administers the National Standard Program for Outdoor Leadership Certification within the existing context of many higher education degree programs. The association states that certified outdoor leaders "are able to teach others to use and enjoy the wilderness with minimum impact; safely lead others in the wild outdoors; exercise good judgement in a variety of outdoor environments and conditions; and demonstrate a basic standard of outdoor knowledge and experience" (Cockrell & LaFollette, 1985).

The curriculum for both the Wilderness Education Association and the National Outdoor Leadership School are quite similar and are based on the British Mountain Leadership Certificate Scheme of the earlier years with many modifications directed at developing sound judgement (Petzoldt, 1983). An article in a British Journal makes comparisons between the association's certificate and the British Mountain Leadership Training Board's qualification. The major differences are that the association's certificate places a higher emphasis on developing judgement, has a lesser concern for developing activity skills, employs lengthier expeditions for training, and uses peer assessment techniques (Phiips & Cain, 1984).

The NOLS courses cover Practical Judgement, Leadership Skills, Decision Making, Routefinding, Technical Climbing, Backcountry Evacuations, Minimum Impact Skills and Concepts, Hazard Evaluation, Expedition Behavior, Travel Techniques, Navigation, and Nutrition (NOLS, 1985). The WEA program includes: Expedition Behavior, Environmental Ethics, Expedition Planning, Group Handling Skills, Recognizing Abilities and Limitations, Enjoyment of the Wild Outdoors, Safety Systems, and Rescue and Evacuation Techniques (WEA, 1985).

Both programs presently certify outdoor leaders. About NOLS, Petzoldt has said "We can certify an outdoor leader and know this person is likely to lead a group properly and use a certain amount of good judgement. But it is difficult to make any assurances" (Petzoldt, 1975, p. 5). WEA states that their certification "allows potential employers, parents of youth taking trips into the wilds, insurance companies, wild lands administrators, or others interested in the protection of wilderness users and areas, to know that these certified outdoor leaders have been trained in decision-making, safety and conservation" (WEA pamphlet, 1984).

Many universities and colleges throughout the United States offer academic credit for participation in outdoor skills programs run by such organizations as N.O.L.S., W.E.A., and Outward Bound. Several more offer similar programs of their own in technical outdoor skill areas. Some examples include: the University of Oregon, the University of Minnesota, the University of Montana, Idaho State University, Central Washington University, Eastern Washington State University, Brigham Young University in Utah, Ohio State University, and Unity College in Maine (Priest, as cited by Ford & Blanchard, 1985). The American Camping Association offers a Trip Leader Certification Program for camp counselors (Kester-Oliver, 1985).

SUMMARY

The influence of the British Mountain Leader Training Boards has spread among Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States of America. The programs of Great Britain have been formally training outdoor leaders since 1961. Recent reforms resulting from the Hunt Committee Report on Mountain Training have altered the initial format of the program. The schemes no longer certify outdoor leaders, preferring an open-ended approach to leadership preparation.

Australia was the first to adapt the British programs, adding the concept of initial appraisal session and advisory panels for training and assessment. Looking to Australia and the changes in Britain, New Zealand developed a non-certifying advisory role. Based on observations from the successful New Zealand Scheme, Canadian programs in British Columbia and Nova Scotia appear to be moving away from certification.

However, notable programs in the United States still certify outdoor leaders. It appears that the outdoor leadership certification debate will continue for some years to come. No nationally recognized outdoor leadership preparation program, without certification, has yet arisen in North America.

All five nations have been deeply involved in outdoor leadership preparation for many years. A lack of concensus regarding the topic of certification has existed within and among these nations for an equal period. Nonetheless, all five nations are convinced of the need for competent outdoor leaders, and with or without certification, they are proceeding forward.

CHAPTER 4

FOURTEEN COMPONENTS OF OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP

During the study, a review of the literature related to outdoor leadership in the five nations was undertaken. From an analysis of the review, fourteen components of an effective outdoor leader were identified and grouped into attributes and skills.

Here, once again, are the fourteen outdoor leadership components:

ATTRIBUTES

Motivational philosophy and interest
Physical fitness
Healthy self-concept and ego
Awareness and empathy for others
Personable traits and behavior
Flexible leadership style
Judgement based on experience

SKILLS

Technical activity skills
Safety skills
Organizational skills
Environmental skills
Instructional skills
Group management skills
Problem solving skills

REVIEW OF PAST RESEARCH AND WRITING

A review of related outdoor leadership research helps build a foundation upon which to base further study. Research related to the topic of outdoor leadership is predominantly concerned with curriculum and competency studies. Four key research studies have contributed much toward identifying what it takes to become a competent outdoor leader. These studies and their findings are presented below.

Previous works by Green (1981), Swiderski (1981), Buell (1981), and Priest (1984) all sought to identify the key components important to the leaders of high adventure outdoor pursuits. Green performed a Delphi Consensus with 61 outdoor leaders in the Pacific Northwest United States and developed a college course curriculum for land based outdoor pursuit leaders based on the leaders' responses. Swiderski concentrated on surveying 148 outdoor leaders in the western portion of the United States of America and found important differences between regions on some outdoor leadership competencies. Buell covered all of the U.S.A. and parts of Canada by surveying 120 supervisors, educators and leaders, on a list of approximately two hundred important competencies for outdoor leaders. Priest (1984) surveyed 189 administrators and leaders in attendance at the eleventh annual conference of the Association of Experiential Education, held in 1983, and confirmed the earlier findings.

Although somewhat different terminology was employed for these studies, each researcher arrived at similar conclusions and presented related lists of outdoor leadership competencies and course curricula. Among his conclusions, Green (1981) reported that knowledge of emergency medical techniques and outdoor living skills is critically important to outdoor leaders of land-based outdoor pursuits, but should be obtained prior to their involvement in an outdoor leadership course. He further listed the ten topics of highest priority for inclusion in such a course:

1) risk management plans,
2) small group dynamics,
3) liability considerations,
4) outdoor leadership methods,
5) judgement,
6) minimum impact practices,
7) decision-making,
8) assessment of group capabilities,
9) assessment of individual capabilities, and
10) outdoor leadership objectives (p. 52).

From his conclusions, Green outlined the topical content of a college-level outdoor leadership course:

1) PHILOSOPHY of outdoor leadership including objectives;
2) RISK MANAGEMENT including liability considerations, assessment of group and individual capabilities, and emergency plans;
3) DECISION-MAKING including judgement and problem solving analysis;
4) Outdoor Leadership METHODS;
5) TEACHING PRINCIPLES including teaching methods and techniques for outdoor leaders;
6) SMALL GROUP DYNAMICS in the outdoors;
7) ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS including wilderness ethics, minimum impact philosophy and practices;
8) PRE-TRIP PLANNING including location selection, food planning and logistics;
9) HAZARDS ANALYSIS including hypothermia, hyperthermia, avalanche awareness and safety;
10) MAP READING and interpretation (pp. 56-57).

Swiderski (1981) noted differences among regional respondents regarding outdoor leadership competencies concerned with topics related to snow or ice travel and off-trail navigation. In addition, he reported the top ten competencies important for outdoor leadership as being:

1) exercise good judgement and common sense,
2) handle potential safety problems,
3) foresee and prepare for accident situations,
4) prevent illness and injury,
5) teach about environmentally related injuries,
6) follow a personal wilderness ethic,
7) generate positive attitude through personal actions,
8) demonstrate minimum impact camping techniques,
9) recognize own limitations, plan accordingly, and
10) recognize the indicators of physiological and psychological problems (p. 107).

Buell (1981) mentioned that respondents to his survey did not rank any national certification programs as essential to outdoor leaders, and he added his top ten competencies for outdoor leaders to the growing list:

1) design and use a first aid kit,
2) knowledge and skill of first aid and group safety,
3) possess the necessary physical fitness,
4) limit activities to leader and participant capabilities,
5) anticipate problems and act to prevent harm,
6) provide the necessary standard of care,
7) be able to apply physical and emotional first aid,
8) develop and communicate safety systems or procedures,
9) select and implement the necessary logistics, and
10) carry out appropriate staff pre-planning (p. 102).

Priest (1984) concluded that respondents felt certification of outdoor leaders was favored only if limited to certain skills. He confirmed the findings of earlier studies and presented his top ten list of outdoor leadership competencies:

1) ability to anticipate possible accidents,
2) wilderness first aid skills,
3) awareness of small group dynamics,
4) ability to clearly identify the problem at hand,
5) ability to evaluate probable natural hazards,
6) ability to foster group cooperation/communication/trust,
7) ability to provide opportunity for personal growth,
8) proficiency in technical land-based activities,
9) proficiency in technical water-based activities, and
10) ability to prepare accident response plans (p. 36).

These four studies represent the available research which has been conducted along lines similar to this study. The overall view appears to be that outdoor leaders should not only be proficient at the technical activity and safety skills, but should also be competent in areas such as planning expeditions, teaching skills to others, working with small groups in an outdoor setting, and making decisions under stressful conditions.

Others have written on the topic of outdoor leadership, presenting what they intuitively consider to be important components of outdoor leadership. A review of these works, coupled with the results of the research outlined above, helped to build a composite picture of the ideal outdoor leader. Exerpts from books, theses and articles from each of the nations studied contributed a few important areas of outdoor leadership competency to add to the overall concept of what it takes to be an outdoor leader. For example, a review of textbooks related to outdoor leadership preparation in each of the five nations reveals differences in beliefs about outdoor leadership competency.

The Outdoor Training Guide (NZOTAB, 1980) from New Zealand, lists nineteen attributes of an outdoor leader which include everything from empathy and communication related traits to leadership style and responsible problem solving. The Bushwalking and Mountaincraft Leadership Manual (VBMAB, 1981) from Australia, emphasizes verbal and nonverbal communications between groups and individuals, and it places a high premium on personal experience. The British book Mountaincraft and Leadership (Langmuir, 1984) is more concerned with safety, and to that end requires that practical experience should match, if not exceed, the level of training achieved. The Association of Experiential Education's working document: Accepted Peer Practices in Adventure Programming (Johanson, 1984) from the U.S.A., recommends technical, first aid, group and communication skills, combined with a supportive philosophy and an appropriate level of fitness as factors to consider when hiring outdoor leaders. A manual for Outdoor Recreation Programming (Bissix & Jackson, 1979) from Canada, lists enthusiasm, technical ability, experience, judgement, appreciation and enjoyment of the out-of-doors as the qualities of a good outdoor leader.

From a review of these texts, it appeared that differences might indeed exist among the nations on the question: "Which components of outdoor leadership are of paramount importance?" Further examination of writings on this topic presented a diveristy of suggestions for aspiring outdoor leaders. However, none of the descriptions were fully complete and it took a compilation of these many ideas to create a definitive list. In turn, this list was useful in developing a survey instrument.

A legal expert, van der Smissen (1975, 1980) put teaching, first aid and emergency skills at the top of her list of preventative knowledges required of outdoor leaders. Storms (1979) required an ability at first aid, water safety and CPR of his outdoor leaders. In addition, he expected experience at outdoor teaching, comprehension of group dynamics, and sound judgement under stress from outdoor leaders. Darst and Armstrong (1980) recommended that the staff of adventure activities develop skills in the areas of interpersonal relations, behavioral management, instruction, and evaluation.

Several authors have concerned themselves with personality traits of outdoor leaders. Cox (1984) listed the most desirable outdoor leadership traits as courage, integrity, patience, humility, competency and potency. Baker (1975) and Sirois (1980) studied personality traits, such as these and others, at the National Outdoor

Leadership School (NOLS) and were convinced of the importance of such traits to outdoor leaders. Hendy (1975) and Riggins (1985) performed similar research with Outward Bound instructors and concluded that particular personality traits contributed to the overall effectiveness of such leaders.

Cousineau (1977) supported personality as an important aspect of outdoor leadership, and added outdoor skills, leadership experience, safety skills, age and fitness. McRea (1976) saw the need to train camping trip leaders in three similar areas: outdoor living skills, leadership competence and administration. McAvoy (1978) considered skills in group interaction, decision making and administration as important to the leaders of "risk recreators." He believed that training for outdoor leaders is necessary in the areas of judgement, outdoor skills, expedition behavior, safety, environmental awareness, and trip planning.

Cox (1984) catalogued assertion, communication, and group management skills as critical to outdoor leaders. Easther (1979) listed activity skills, group management, judgement and decision making, previous experience, education and training, teaching skills, environmental attitudes, personality, and health and fitness as the key components of outdoor adventure activity leadership. Johnson and Ewert (1983) identified a set of core components essential to outdoor leadership as judgement, outdoor knowledge, medical skills, human resource management, personality, and environmental ethics.

Gibson (1977) mentioned a basic competency in outdoor living, survival, small group process, ecological awareness and conceptual understanding as contributory to outdoor leadership skills. Baillie (1982) broke the qualities of outdoor leadership into three factors: philosophical, personality, and leadership techniques. These factors included such aspects as ego, empathy, and awareness. Toft (1982) added to this list: self-responsibility, fitness level, motor skills, wilderness ethic, outdoor information, and general "state-of-being."

Priest (1984) identified the skills components of the effective outdoor leader as being associated with activity and safety, organization, instruction, group counseling, and judgement firmly based upon experience. Teschner and Wolter (1984) categorized five broad categories of outdoor leadership as personal characteristics, experience, skills, theoretical knowledge, and certificates ordered from greatest to least importance. Zook (1986) connected five goals of adventure activities to leadership ability. He felt outdoor leaders needed to be able to foster personal growth, facilitate human interdependence, deal objectively with stressful situations, enable self-actualization in participants, and clarify the distinction between needs and wants.

Petzoldt (1974) described the essential qualities of an outdoor leader to be outdoor knowledge, technical ability, actual field experience, sound judgement, genuine truthfulness and selflessness, trust and respect gained from the group, ability to plan and anticipate problems, sympathy and humor, and pragmatic realism about personal abilities and limitations. Above all, he considered sound judgement to be of the utmost importance. Rogers (1979) set objective judgement above all other aspects of six outdoor leadership forces: physiological, sociological, psychological, environmental, safety, and technical.

Based on the writings described above, on the top ten competencies mentioned in the four research studies listed earlier, and on the curricula of established outdoor leadership preparation programs in the five nations, it was possible to identify the general skill and attribute components of an outdoor leader. For the purposes of this study, the following comprehensive list was established by grouping the key descriptors obtained during a content analysis of the literature above. This list of outdoor leadership components served as a foundation for the study questionnaire.

1) motivational philosophy and interest,
2) physical fitness,
3) healthy self-concept and ego,
4) awareness and empathy for others,
5) personable traits and behavior,
6) flexible leadership style,
7) technical activity skills,
8) safety skills,
9) organizational skills,
10) environmental skills,
11) instructional skills,
12) group management skills,
13) problem solving/decision making skills, and
14) sound judgement based upon experience.

In addition, it was important to recognize that some of these components may be partially innate or partially learned depending upon the outdoor leader under consideration. These fourteen components were divided into the two categories of attributes and skills. Each component is explained in greater detail below under the heading of these two categories.

SEVEN ATTRIBUTES OF OUTDOOR LEADERS

What motivates people to have an interest in leading others in the outdoors? Through a motivational philosophy leaders seek to inquire into and respond to their own reasons for taking others into the outdoor environment. Do they lead as a means to teach safe outdoor living skills, to instill a stewardship for the natural wilderness, to provide positive and enjoyable adventure experiences which lead to personal development and group growth, or perhaps a woven combination of all three?

Active adventure experiences demand a high level of mental and physical fitness. This personal fitness often arises in outdoor leaders from a respect for personal environments as well as for natural environments. When faced with decisions under extreme situational stress, it pays to have leaders who are mentally and physically prepared to deal with the problem at hand.

Outdoor leaders who know their own strengths and weaknesses, who reserve pushing their own limits to times when they are engaged in personal trips and who are aware of their own egos, can devote time and effort to developing healthy self-concepts in others. Outdoor leaders who take groups outdoors so that they, themselves, may benefit from climbing a new peak or running a new river with the students along for the ride, are obviously not responding to the needs of the group and therefore cannot be expected to provide enjoyable growth experiences for others.

At the same time, those leaders who have never been through an experience similar to that of their charges, may lack the empathy necessary to appreciate the feelings of their followers. If the leaders are unaware of the emotional status of the group, then they cannot possibly know the best way to help the group reach their goals!

Historically, leaders have been described by a long list of personable traits such as unselfishness, confidence, honesty, punctuality, humor, and eagerness. These traits were often identified as the reason for their emergence as a leader. Although this emergence theory is not commonly supported today, some traits are still important to the successful influence of outdoor leaders.

Leaders are also held up as role models by those they lead; and as such, they must exhibit model behavior when in the presence of their charges. They must demonstrate a concern for balancing safety and risk, and demonstrate a C.A.R.E. ethic (concern, admiration, respect and empathy) toward both environment and people. For example, they should wear lifejackets and protective helmets when such equipment is necessary, they should avoid leaving trace of their campsites, and they should behave in a manner that is socially acceptable to others.

Flexible leadership style is extremely valuable to outdoor leaders. In a single outing they may be called upon to employ the complete spectrum of leadership sty Under some circumstances, the leadership of a group may be shared by democra consensus. In times of urgent crisis, leaders must assume control and lead with autocratic style by giving orders and delegating tasks to group members. At other times, leaders may adopt an abdicratic (laissez-faire) style of leadership, and delegate responsibility to the group, when the opportunity is right for the group members to gain greater independence.

People tend to hold an orientation to either the group or the task at hand. Leaders need to know their predisposition, so that they may take this orientation into account when making decisions. Once outdoor leaders are aware that their individual focus is biased toward the group or the task, then they can approach either focus in a more effective manner by putting additional effort into the area of least concern. Neither orientation is right or wrong. The key point is that group oriented leaders, under stress, may not be fully effective in task oriented situations, and vice-versa. Thus, leaders should be aware of personal orientations and adopt an appropriate style to suit each different situation which they encounter.

SEVEN SKILLS OF OUTDOOR LEADERS

Technical activity skills refer to those competencies specifically concerned with the outdoor activity being led. Some examples include: being able to rock climb at a certain standard or level of difficulty, and to paddle a certain section or grade of a whitewater river. Leaders need to be able to perform at a proficiency level equal to or greater than the members of their party, so as to maintain group control during the technical activities.

In an effort to care for the well being of the group, leaders should be well practiced in all related safety skills. Examples of such safety skills are navigation, survival, weather interpretation, body temperature regulation, wilderness first aid, accident response, search and rescue, and water safety.

Organizational skills enable leaders to plan, prepare, execute and evaluate an expedition with consideration given to the participants' special needs. Leaders are responsible for assuring that all logistical needs are met, for seeing that the schedule fits the group needs and capabilities, for providing a matched balance of risk and safety, and for protecting the group and outdoor environment from one another.

With the environment experiencing the heavy impact of our current culture, it is the outdoor leaders who must alter the attitudes of others toward preserving and conserving the outdoor environment. Ability in the area of environmental skills is necessary as outdoor leaders must practice and encourage minimum impact travel and no trace camping whenever possible.

Instructional skills are important, because outdoor leaders often have the opportunity to teach and thus share important skills and knowledge. Leaders with the responsibility of teaching others need to be well versed in competencies such as using instructional aids, applying teaching strategies, learning by progressive skills acquisition and learning through direct and purposeful experiences.

Group management skills enable leaders to assist with the personal development and the group growth which arises from an outdoor experience. Under stress situations leaders must resolve conflicts, modify behaviors, and maintain group cohesion. Through effective communication, interpersonal trust, and task cooperation leaders are able to assist groups with identifying, working toward and achieving common goals.

The process of solving problems and making decisions is a mainstay of the adventure experience. The challenge inherent in many outdoor activities comes from solving problems under conditions of risk. Problems, ranging from reaching mountain summits to fixing a leaky tent, may be solved by outdoor leaders employing creative methods, such as brainstorming, or analytical methods, such as projecting the probabilities of desired outcomes. It matters little which method or combination is applied, but rather that the final decision is made on the basis of information derived from past experiences.

Sound judgement is the "glue" with which outdoor leaders unite other components, solve key problems and make difficult decisions under stress. Good judgement skills come from surviving past judgment calls; from analyzing those successes and errors, and retaining the analysis for future, similar situations. In turn, this ability develops from both intensive and extensive practical field experiences. There are few short cuts! Without sound judgement, outdoor leaders cannot function effectively in their role of caring for their group's safety, the environment they travel through, and the adventures they and their group experience.

Judgement calls are required by leaders in almost all matters of competency: philosophy, fitness, ego, empathy, personality, style, technique, safety, organization, environment, instruction, group facilitation, and problem solving. Hence, outdoor leadership competence is a blend of these fourteen components. Judgement is the cementing factor which holds all together.

CERTIFICATION AND JUDGEMENT OF OUTDOOR LEADERS

Beyond the question of what it takes to be an outdoor leader, there is the task of how best to prepare outdoor leaders. Most of the related literature on outdoor leadership preparation has long centered on the issue of certification. Ewert (1985) related certification to "quality control" or "a means to assure only qualified people may systematically engage in the formal teaching and/or leading of individuals in the outdoor adventure situation" (p. 17). Whether or not certification actually achieves these objectives has been, and still is, a topic for heated discussion.

Two studies of particular merit regarding this subject were made by Senosk (1977) and Cousineau (1977). In 1976, Senosk surveyed 148 directors or duly appointed officials of outdoor pursuit organizations in the United States. She inquired about the current status of required outdoor leadership certification and found that at the time of survey:

1) 70.1% of respondents had no certification program,
2) 60.4% of respondents had no plans to initiate one,
3) 60.1% of respondents expressed no need for one, and
4) 82.4% of respondents did not approve of government intervention at any level (p. 57-59).

Senosk's work grew out of two certification conferences held in 1974 and 1977. The first conference, sponsored by the National Outdoor Leadership School, attracted thirty five leaders (most from Wyoming) who felt certification of outdoor leaders was an attractive proposal. They recommended four areas for consideration: expedition planning, leadership traits, accident prevention, and conservation education (NOLS, 1974). This first conference basically went unnoticed and with little impact. A second conference was held by the Yosemite Institute, and attracted a wider audience. Again certification was favored, but a majority made the recommendation that individual organizations handle outdoor leader certification on their own level and to meet their own needs (Yosemite Institute, 1977).

Using a Delphi technique, Cousineau (1977) sampled 113 outdoor adventure educators in Ontario, Canada on the same topic and he concluded that "the total population of respondents seemed to indicate a desire for a certification system" (p. 132) within their province. One unfortunate consequence of this piece of research has been its application to outdoor leaders in other regions. Proponents of certification have often said that this study demonstrates support for certification by the field. Cousineau found support for leadership certification only within members of an association and only in one province of Canada. His results cannot be generalized beyond his population of study.

Following the intent of Cousineau's study, the Council of Outdoor Educators of Ontario commisioned a monograph by Rogers (1979) entitled Leading to Share Sharing to Lead. In this publication, Rogers defined objective judgement as "the ability to divorce one's self from the role of the participant" and "the ability to understand, compare and decide between alternative forces" (p. 3) acting on a given situation.

Rogers was careful to point out that outdoor leadership is not a case of certification, but is rather an ongoing process of preparation which takes place over a great deal of time and is never fully completed for the leader who aspires to be truly effective. It is the assessment of this critical outdoor leadership component: objective judgement, which has been a focal point for an intense debate on the topic of certification for outdoor leaders over the past years.

Petzoldt (1974), in his publication the Wilderness Handbook, mentioned judgement as the all important aspect of outdoor leadership and writes that "a talent for judgement can be taught" (p. 147). Sound judgement can be learned from exposure to a series of extensive and intensive experiences (Ogilvie, 1974). March (1980) mentioned the "wilderness factor" with high objective hazards and isolation from civilized medical aid as a key aspect of the judgement issue. He related "that only by personal experience over a long period of time can a person begin to acquire the level of judgement to operate safely in a leadership capacity" (p. 16).

Langmuir (1976), author of Mountain Leadership, the handbook of the Scottish and other British Mountain Leadership Training Boards, stated that "a decision without the pressure of consequence, is hardly a decision at all" (p. 4) and he pointed to good decision making as both science and art which arise from the experience of surviving past poor decisions. Jackson (1972), a founding member of the British Mountain Leadership Scheme, is credited with the solid phrase: "Good party leadership depends upon the right person, having the right people, in the right place, at the right time, with the right equipment and the right knowledge" (p. 1). He added that the success of solving problems and making decisions depends upon the outdoor leader's "ability to make sound judgements based on knowledge and experience" (p. 1).

The issue of certification is beginning to receive some attention in the United States of America. A special issue of Camping Magazine (Job & Yerkes, 1985) was entirely devoted to the topic; however, authors' viewpoints were divided on the question of certification. A recent "Think Tank" organized for discussing issues related to adventure actitivities, found its panel of experts agreeing on the need for outdoor leadership preparation; but, on the topic of certification they too were diametrically opposed (Robb & Hamilton, 1985).

Rollins (1983) was of the opinion that two sides existed to certification. On the positive side, certification protects the consumer and the experience, motivates leaders to higher standards, and provides some support in cases of liability. On the negative side, certification is costly and time consuming, is often only a test of specific skill proficiency, and may duplicate or overlap other preparation efforts. He suggested that programs develop their own standards of outdoor leadership competency and certify their own leaders.

Green (1982), in a chapter on certification, summed up both sides of the issue. On the pro side he synthesized the supporting arguments into three types: protection of the client or consumer, protection of the environment, and lower insurance premiums. On the con side he stated the major objection as an inability to evaluate outdoor leadership competency and sound judgement.

Most proponents of certification maintained that a certificate guarantees fully competent leadership; a safe leader at all times. Hunt (1985) summed up this point well, when he stated that a key issue in the certification conflict is "the attempt to conflate being safe with being certified" (p. 24).

The crux of the certification debate revolved around the fact that leaders must be able to make sound decisions under extremely stressful conditions. The competence to do this reliably, and the ability to validate this judgement competence, are what trouble those who oppose certification. Swiderski (1985) considered that outdoor leaders make at least fifty important decisions a day and that their decisions are based on subjective criteria like experience, intuition, and attitude. He asked the question: how can these be assessed objectively? "Regardless of how extensive and thorough a certification system may be, it cannot assure nor certify that leader's judgemental capabilities in a short time" (p. 20).

This, then, is the critical question surrounding the trend to prepare outdoor leaders: is certification of only a few outdoor leadership components better than no certification at all? Priest (1984) found little support, by members of the Association for Experiential Education, for certification of outdoor leaders. He reported that support was shown for certification of the so-called "hard" competencies, such as technical activity and safety skills. Certification of the "soft" competencies, such as judgement, organizational skills, instructional skills, and group counseling skills, was not favored by respondents.

One suggestion from the respondents of the survey was the certification or accreditation of programs rather than people. Support for this idea was present in

Virginia. Cockrell and Detzel (1985) obtained 70% support for the idea of certifying outdoor adventure organizations rather than individuals. This may yet prove a viable alternative to outdoor leadership certification. A related alternative is that mentioned by Wade (1983). He suggested the peer review process, used by Outward Bound since 1971, as an advantageous mechanism. The peer review process involves the formation of a review group composed of experts from several outdoor agencies. These expert visit various programs and conduct a detailed examination of safety procedures. The results are lower costs born by the program and higher standards of excellence sought by the staff. The researcher has noted a similar trend among Outward Bound schools in other nations.

Most definitely the key issue in outdoor leadership was certification. Judgement was the fulcrum about which certification swings. Those concerned with judgement asserted that it was best gained by an outdoor leader as a result of lengthy experiences actually leading groups in the out-of-doors. Others believed that it could be taught over the short term through simulation exercises. Proponents of certification suggested that outdoor leadership competency can be certified. Critics felt that the outdoor leadership component of sound judgement cannot!

The trend for the future in outdoor leadership appears to be more of the same emotional arguments. The study examined the suggestions of international experts regarding outdoor leadership preparation and certification in an attempt to set the stage for a better understanding and possible resolution of this most critical issue.

CHAPTER 5

THE STUDY DESIGN

The international study was undertaken to determine the fundamentals of outdoor leadership preparation in five nations. It identified patterns of differences and similarities among these nations regarding outdoor leadership components and preparation strategies. Furthermore, it explained these similarities and differences on the basis of national characteristics specific to each country.

WHAT WAS THE STUDY ATTEMPTING TO DETERMINE?

The purpose of this research was to determine the influence subjects' nationality, and corresponding national characteristics, had upon their attitudes toward outdoor leadership competency and their approaches to the preparation of outdoor leaders. Specifically, it was interested in determining:

WHAT is required to create a competent outdoor leader,
HOW outdoor leaders are prepared in each of the countries, and
WHY countries apply different techniques in their preparation
of outdoor leaders.

The study made a close examination of the attitudes and approaches to outdoor leadership preparation. Specifically, it examined differences among experts from the five nations in:

the principal purposes for preparing competent outdoor leaders,
the importance of the fourteen outdoor leadership components,
the concerns associated with outdoor pursuits and adventure activities,
the prerequisites for selecting outdoor leadership candidates,
the curriculum content of preparation programs,
the opportunities for experiential practica,
the methods of training and assessment, and
the beliefs regarding outdoor leadership certification.

WHY WERE THE FIVE NATIONS CHOSEN?

Outdoor leadership competency studies were previously undertaken for the Pacific Northwest (Green, 1981), Western United States (Swiderski, 1981), and North America (Buell, 1981; Priest, 1984). All four researchers called for expansion of their studies, and the next logical step appeared to be a study with input from other nations involved in outdoor leadership preparation. To this end, the study included the five nations of Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New Zealand, and the United States of America.

The study was limited to these nations for several reasons. First, and most importantly, the nations claimed their outdoor leadership development programs were commonly rooted in the British Mountain Leadership Scheme. Second, all nations had a common basis in their legal and educational systems, and a history of settlement from a common mother country, Great Britain. Third, personal involvement of the researcher with each of the five nations aided in their consideration. The researcher, a British born Canadian, educated in the United States, travelled throughout all five countries on outdoor education study tours and made contacts vital to seeking out subjects for the study. During these travels he studied outdoor leadership preparation schemes in each country, interviewed experts active in the training and assessment of outdoor leaders, and realized the positive impact an international study might have on the field of outdoor leadership research and program development in North America. Last, the common language of English assisted with communication.

In addition to these commonalities, the five nations also held specific national characteristics relating to political, economic, social, cultural, natural, and geographical factors. By selecting these nations in particular, the study design was able to isolate and thus control for their commonalities. Therefore, it was most likely that differences and similarities in outdoor leadership preparation were the result of national characteristics unique to each country. Such a sample provided a convenient means to separate out situationally specific elements of the preparation process and to identify national preferences in the definition and preparation of outdoor leaders. The main premise of the study was that, by selecting five nations with a common heritage and common roots in outdoor leadership preparation, any determined differences in attitudes or approaches among these countries would be the result of intrinsic factors such as the national characteristics mentioned earlier.

WHO WAS INVOLVED IN THE STUDY?

Fifty experts from EACH of the five nations were selected on the basis of their expertise in outdoor leadership preparation. This included, but was not limited to, authors writing on the topic of outdoor leadership, administrators of preparation programs, wardens and directors of national level outdoor centers, and university professors or college instructors teaching outdoor leadership courses. Since the topics covered in the study were highly specific to the field of outdoor leadership preparation, and not to all areas of outdoor adventure programs, a sample of only the top experts was desired. Essentially, any bias imparted by the exclusion of other less qualified individuals was desired, in order to maintain a quality sample of two hundred fifty potential respondents.

A list of respondents was created for each country. Subject selection for New Zealand, Australia and Great Britain was aided by the existence of current mailing lists identifying people active in the field of outdoor leadership. For Canada and the United States of America, such mailing lists did not exist and were therefore created.

For New Zealand, Australia, and Great Britain, official mailing lists were obtained from bodies responsible for outdoor leadership preparation. In New Zealand, the Mountain Safety Council (NZMSC) and the Outdoor Training Advisory Board (NZOTAB) represented the authorities. In Australia, the training committees of the Victorian Bushwalking and Mountaincraft Advisory Board (VBMAB) and the Bush and Mountain Walking Leadership Training Board of Tasmania (BMWLTBT) were considered. In Great Britain, the executive from the respective Mountain Leader Training Boards (MLTB), the membership of the Association of Wardens of Outdoor Education Centres (AWOC), and the National Association of Outdoor Education (NAOE) were all included. Personal contacts made by the researcher during two separate outdoor education study tours of these countries were also added.

For the United States and Canada, the mailing lists used by previous researchers Buell (1981), Green (1981), and Swiderski (1981), were combined and updated. The membership directory from the Association of Experiential Education (AEE) provided additional names. Contacts from three separate outdoor education study tours of North America were also added. A confirmation mailing was sent out to all potential subjects in North America asking their interest in participating in the study and their current involvement in outdoor leadership preparation. Additional subjects were generated by a call for further experts involved in outdoor leadership preparation. The majority of the potential respondents were identified by one another through this call for further experts, thus validating the final list of North American respondents.

HOW WAS THE SURVEY CREATED?

The survey for the study included a cover letter and a list of definitions. The cover letter introduced the researcher to the experts and outlined the purpose and significance of the study. It invited all respondents to participate in an international exchange of ideas on outdoor leadership preparation and assured complete confidentiality of responses. The list of definitions explained precisely what was meant by each of the outdoor leadership components used in the study.

The survey consisted of twenty items. Item one gave statements regarding the principal purpose of outdoor leadership preparation and asked respondents for a level of agreement with each statement. Item two listed the fourteen components and asked the respondents to state a degree of importance for each component. These two items were scored on a continuous six point Likert scale. Although the scale was interval in nature, six points were used to encourage a discriminatory decision and to avoid medial responses. The option of not applicable was also made available.

Items three, four and five required respondents to rank their preferences for the same fourteen components, arranged as skills and attributes, and to rank their greatest current concerns in the outdoor adventure field. These three items were consistency checks for the earlier first two items. By comparing the earlier rating items with these ranked items, any respondents providing mere random answers would be identified.

Item six provided a dichotomous choice between environmental protection and participant safety. Respondents were asked to strike a balance between the two on a continuous scale. They were then asked to restrike the balance with litigation no longer a consideration, and then again with diminishing natural resources not a consideration. Shifts in the results were interpreted on the basis of earlier stated rankings of importance for the two choice extremes.

Item seven listed the fourteen components and a few other prerequisites and inquired as to which were considered in the selection of outdoor leadership candidates (before training). Items eight, nine, ten, eleven and twelve asked specific questions about experience, training methods and assessment methods which would be utilized in outdoor leadership preparation programs. Items thirteen, fourteen, fifteen and sixteen asked questions concerned with the certification of outdoor leaders (after assessment) and with the relation of such certification to the fourteen components.

Items seventeen, eighteen and nineteen provided an opportunity to share further ideas on how outdoor leadership preparation can be improved, on what national characterisitics might influence such preparation program in the respondent's nation, and on outdoor leadership in general. Item twenty collected demographics. Comments were solicited throughout the study and ample room was provided for that purpose.

The survey was pilot tested twice. The first pilot test was made for content with a group of twenty outdoor leaders enrolled in an outdoor leadership course at the University of Oregon. The second pilot test was made for cultural bias with fifty international students from the five nations studied. These students were enrolled at the University of Oregon, with the majority studying in the disciplines of Leisure Studies and Services, Physical Education, Curriculum and Instruction, Special Education and Architecture. All had more than one year of experience as outdoor leaders in their native countries.

A COPY OF THE SURVEY IS PROVIDED HERE FOR REFERENCE.

CODE # ______

OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP PREPARATION IN FIVE NATIONS

A Survey for Selected
Experts in

Australia,
Canada,
New Zealand,
The United Kingdom,
and
The United States of America

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INSTRUCTIONS

1. This study is interested in your PERSONAL IDEAS of what SHOULD BE the ideal situation regarding outdoor leadership preparation in your country. Information on the current schemes in existence has already been obtained.
2. Fifty experts from EACH of the FIVE NATIONS listed above are being asked to share their ideas on outdoor leadership preparation. THANK YOU in advance for contributing your suggestions. PLEASE REMEMBER THE RESPONSES TO THESE QUESTIONS SHOULD BE YOUR OWN OPINIONS; not necessarily those of the organization you are associated with.
3. Please answer the questions in the order presented. Use the detachable COMMENTS PAGE (included overleaf) if additional space is needed to fully answer any question. Should you find any unfamiliar terms, please refer to the DEFINITIONS PAGE located at the back of the survey.
4. Upon completion, please IMMEDIATELY return the survey in the enclosed POSTAGE PAID ENVELOPE. Please add your name and return address only to the outside of this envelope.

PAGE FOR ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

Should you find insufficient space to comment on a given question, please follow the steps below to assist the researcher in correctly linking your comments to the questions.

1. PLEASE DETACH THIS PAGE FROM THE REST OF THE SURVEY and keep it handy as you proceed through the questions, answering them in order.
2. When you wish to make comments beyond the available space, please leave a CIRCLED NUMBER beside the part of the question you are answering, and....
3. ...Place that SAME CIRCLED NUMBER on this page and continue with your comments.
4. Avoid placing your comments in the margin beside the question, as this will confuse the data analysis procedure.

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1. Rate the following statements in level of agreement. Place an 'X' ON THE LINE between the numbers 1 and 6. If you feel the statement is NOT APPLICABLE place an 'X' in the [ ] space provided. For the purposes of answering this question the following example is given:

1	2	3	4		5	6
				X		
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Mildly Agree		Agree	Strongly Agree

The PRINCIPAL PURPOSE for preparing competent outdoor leaders is:

to maintain professional standards. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to lower insurance premiums for outdoor organizations. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to reduce the amount of damage to the environment. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to teach competence in outdoor skills to participants. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to reduce the number of land management regulations. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to ensure the learning objectives of a program are met. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to reduce the money spent on search and rescue callouts. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to increase the number of people involved in the outdoors. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to reduce the number of accidents to participants. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to improve the public attitude toward "high risk" activities. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to ensure a positive experience for participants. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to protect the organization from litigation (legal action). 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

to maintain positive relations with other outdoor users. 1 2 3 4 5 6
[ ] = NOT APPLICABLE

OTHER: 1 2 3 4 5 6
Please specify ____________________

2. Rate the following statements in level of importance.Place an 'X' on the line between the numbers 1 and 6. If you feel the statement is NOT APPLICABLE place an 'X' in the [ ] space provided. For the purposes of answering this question the following example is given:

1	2	3	4	5	6
	X				
Extremely Unimportant	Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Important	Extremely Important

An outdoor leader's COMPETENCE in (the item listed below) is (level of importance):

Technical activity skills [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Awareness and empathy for others [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Safety skills [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Physical fitness [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Environmental skills [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Flexible leadership style [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Organizational skills [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Personable traits and behavior [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Instructional skills [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Motivational philosophy and interest [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Group management skills [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Healthy self-concept and ego [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Problem solving/decision making skills [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6
Judgement based upon experience [ ] = NOT APPLICABLE	1	2	3	4	5	6

PLEASE ANSWER THE NEXT FEW QUESTIONS KEEPING IN MIND YOUR ROLE OR YOUR INTEREST IN OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP PREPARATION....

3. Rank order from most important (1) to least important (7) the following CONCERNS associated with outdoor pursuits and adventure activities.

RANK GREATEST CURRENT CONCERN

____ Protecting the outdoor environment.
____ Avoiding a situation involving litigation (legal action).
____ Continuing good relations with the local resource managers.
____ Enabling the participants to learn in and enjoy the outdoors.
____ Maintaining the future existence of my organization.
____ Caring for the safety and well-being of the participants.
____ Creating a professional outdoor leadership association.

4. Rank order from most important (1) to least important (7) the following ATTRIBUTES of competent outdoor leaders.

RANK OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTE

____ Awareness and empathy for others.
____ Physical fitness.
____ Flexible leadership style.
____ Personable traits and behavior.
____ Motivational philosophy and interest.
____ Healthy self-concept and ego.
____ Judgement based on experience.

5. Rank order from most important (1) to least important (7) the following SKILLS of competent outdoor leaders.

RANK OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP SKILL

____ Technical activity skills.
____ Safety skills.
____ Environmental skills.
____ Organizational skills.
____ Instructional skills.
____ Group management skills.
____ Problem solving/decision making skills.

6. Place an 'X' on the line between Environmental Protection and Participant Safety at the point where you balance your personal concern for the two items. For example: if environmental protection is a greater concern for you, then you would place the 'X' closer to that end.

ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION |————————————| PARTICIPANT SAFETY

Imagine for a moment that litigation (arising from participant injury) is not a consideration in striking a balance. Please repeat the placement of the 'X' with this information in mind.

ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION |————————————| PARTICIPANT SAFETY

Now imagine that diminishing natural resources are not a consideration in striking the balance. Once again, please repeat the placement of the 'X' with this new information in mind.

ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION |————————————| PARTICIPANT SAFETY

COMMENTS: ____________________

7. When **screening** people for outdoor leadership preparation programs (before they undergo training), which of the following components would you consider in the selection process. For each component you would consider, what qualities or quantities would you look for?

ITEM	CONSIDERED?	If yes, WHAT DO YOU LOOK FOR?
Age	yes no	____
Gender (sex)	yes no	____
Enthusiasm/desire to learn	yes no	____
Log of recorded experiences	yes no	____
Technical activity skills	yes no	____
Awareness and empathy for others	yes no	____
Safety skills	yes no	____
Physical fitness	yes no	____
Environmental skills	yes no	____
Flexible leadership style	yes no	____
Organizational skills	yes no	____
Personable traits and behavior	yes no	____
Instructional skills	yes no	____
Motivational philosophy and interest	yes no	____
Group management skills	yes no	____
Healthy self-concept and ego	yes no	____
Problem solving/decision making skills	yes no	____
Judgement based upon experience	yes no	____

8. Would your concept of an outdoor leadership preparation program include a practicum opportunity for the candidate to gain experience through an internship or apprenticeship with direct supervision? ________ Please explain how this would work.

____

9. **Generally, what methods of TRAINING would you prefer to use in the preparation of outdoor leadership candidates? What percentage of use (out of 100%) would you make of each method? Why would you prefer the method?**

Training by LECTURES Why? ____	yes no	____ %
Training by SIMULATIONS Why? ____	yes no	____ %
Training by DISCUSSIONS Why? ____	yes no	____ %
Training by ROLE PLAYING Why? ____	yes no	____ %
Training by FIELD TRIPS Why? ____	yes no	____ %
	TOTAL =	100 %

10. **Generally, what method of ASSESSMENT would you prefer to use in the evaluation of outdoor leadership candidates? What percentage of use (out of 100%) would you make of each method? Why would you prefer the method?**

Assessment by OUTSIDE EXPERTS Why? ____	yes no	____ %
Assessment by PROGRAM TRAINERS Why? ____	yes no	____ %
Assessment by FOLLOWERS Why? ____	yes no	____ %
Assessment by PEER LEADERS Why? ____	yes no	____ %
Assessment by CANDIDATE'S SELF Why? ____	yes no	____ %
	TOTAL =	100 %

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11. Would you include the components listed below in the CURRICULUM of an outdoor leadership preparation program? What methods would you use to train and assess candidates in each component? Please fill in the training and assessment sections, ONLY if you would include that component in your ideal concept of a program to prepare outdoor leaders.

COMPONENT	INCLUDED?	If yes, METHODS OF TRAINING & ASSESSMENT	
Technical activity skills	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Awareness and empathy for others	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Safety skills	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Physical fitness	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Environmental skills	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Flexible leadership style	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Organizational skills	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Personable traits and behavior	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Instructional skills	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Motivational philosophy and interest	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Group management skills	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Healthy self-concept and ego	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Problem solving/decision making skills	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
Judgement based upon experience	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______
OTHER: Please specify ______	yes no	Train by ______	Assess by ______

---

12. Of what use is EXPERIENCE in the training of outdoor leaders? If appropriate, include in your response the role of past, present, and future experiences for the leadership candidate.

______

______

______

______

13. Are you in agreement with the CERTIFICATION of outdoor leaders? ______ Please explain.

______

______

______

______

14. Following the assessment of candidates in an outdoor leadership preparation program (after their training is complete), for which components would you consider granting a certificate of competence? For each component, on what basis would you grant the certificate?

COMPONENT	CERTIFICATION?	If yes, ON WHAT BASIS?
Technical activity skills	yes no	______
Awareness and empathy for others	yes no	______
Safety skills	yes no	______
Physical fitness	yes no	______
Environmental skills	yes no	______
Flexible leadership style/orientation	yes no	______
Organizational skills	yes no	______
Personable traits and behavior	yes no	______
Instructional skills	yes no	______
Motivational philosophy and interest	yes no	______
Group management skills	yes no	______
Healthy self-concept and ego	yes no	______
Problem solving/decision making skills	yes no	______
Judgement based upon experience	yes no	______

COMMENTS: ______

______

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PEOPL

15. Would you hire people for outdoor leadership roles if they held related certificates? ______
Which certificates would you accept? What would you accept instead of related certificates?

16. Are you in agreement with the belief that an outdoor leadership certificate assures SOUND JUDGEMENT on the part of the individual holding the certificate? ______ Please explain.

17. With your knowledge of outdoor leadership preparation in your country, what things would you CHANGE in the current training and assessment schemes, if you had the opportunity?

18. Please describe any NATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS (politics, economy, geography, culture), and their possible influences, which may determine the way outdoor leaders are prepared in your country.

19. **IF THERE ARE ANY FURTHER COMMENTS YOU MIGHT LIKE TO MAKE PLEASE USE THE REMAINING SPACE ON THE COMMENT SHEET TO DO SO. Thank you!**

---

20. DEMOGRAPHICS Please fill out these final questions

Gender (sex): MALE -or- FEMALE (circle one)

Age: ______ (number of years)

Country of Birth ______
Countries of Citizenship ______

Country of Current Residence ______
How many years have you lived here? ______ (number of years)

Please describe your CURRENT ROLE IN PREPARING OUTDOOR LEADERS:

How many years have you been in this role? ______

How many years have you been a participant in OUTDOOR PURSUITS or ADVENTURE ACTIVITIES? ______ What kinds of activities do you prefer? ______

Educational background: Please list your Diplomas ______
Degrees ______

Do you know any Magazines/Journals related to outdoor leadership and to which you would suggest sending the study results when completed?

NAME: ______ ADDRESS: ______
NAME: ______ ADDRESS: ______

Would you like to receive an abstract of the study results? YES ___ NO ___ (please check one). Survey Code Numbers will be used to return abstracts. Do not give your name or address here!

Approximately how long has it taken to finish this survey? ______ minutes.

THANK YOU FOR SHARING YOUR VALUABLE TIME TO COMPLETE THIS SURVEY.

Please **IMMEDIATELY** return the survey in the POSTAGE PAID ENVELOPE attached. Place your return address on the envelope only, and please mail to:

SIMON PRIEST
190 Esslinger Hall,
University of Oregon,
Eugene, OR. 97403 U.S.A.

Thank you and warmest regards!

PEOPL

WHERE WERE THE SURVEYS SENT AND RETURNED?

The final survey was mailed to a final list of two hundred fifty (250) selected experts. To encourage completion and return of the survey, self-addressed stamped envelopes were included for all respondents. Since local postage was required for the individual return envelopes, friends and family of the researcher, currently living in each nation, volunteered to coordinate mailings from a location within their country.

The coded surveys, addressed envelopes and directions were air-mailed to the friend or family member in each country. Upon receipt of the package, the friend or family member placed the appropriate postage on the outgoing envelope and included a copy of the cover letter, the definitions, the survey, and an air-mail return envelope inside each envelope before sending each one off. One month after the initial mailing, a follow-up postcard was sent to all non-respondents encouraging completion of the survey.

WHAT ANALYSES WERE PERFORMED ON THE RETURNED SURVEYS?

Two months following the initial mailing of the survey to the selected experts, the data from all returned surveys were analyzed. First, responses were descriptively presented. Four different types of answers were possible to the survey items. The first type involved a simple yes or no response. This dichotomous choice was described by using frequency percentages and a goodness-of-fit test was undertaken to establish majorities. The second type involved placing a mark on a continous scale from 1 to 6. Mean or average values were used to describe these responses. The third type involved rank ordering a list of statements from 1 to 7. This type of answer was described using a median or middle choice. The fourth type involved written comments and was analyzed for common content.

Second, a variety of bivariate statistical procedures were applied to seek differences among nations. The type of procedure used depended upon the type of response given for each survey item. Chi Square was employed to seek differences on the yes or no type of questions; t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used for continuous scale answers; and Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis nonparametric tests were carried out on the ranked responses.

Third, other multivariate procedures were employed to investigate the relationships of concerns and components. Factor analyses were carried out to group the components and concerns into common factors for ease of discussion. Regression analysis was used to determine the relationship between the importance of the fourteen outdoor leadership components and the concerns or purposes for preparing outdoor leaders. Finally, discriminant analysis was carried out in an effort to predict nationality on the basis of answers to survey questions regarding the components and concerns.

Throughout the findings in the next chapter, the significant differences from these tests are highlighted, and to aid with interpretation, only the average values or frequency percentages are provided. The actual test statistic outcomes and relative probabilities are purposely omitted. For this information, the interested reader is directed to the original study:

Priest, S. (1986). Outdoor leadership preparation in five nations.
Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter details the statistical results of the study. For each survey item, the question responses are summarized on one page and the numerical values are given on the opposite page.

RETURN RATES

A total of two hundred fifty experts from five nations were sent surveys on the topic of outdoor leadership preparation. One hundred seventy surveys were returned (68.0% return rate). Of these, one return was considered to be unusable. The table below presents the breakdown of the return rates by nation.

NATION	NUMBER RETURNED	RATE
1. Australia	32	64%
2. Canada	36	72%
3. Great Britain (U.K.)	33	66%
4. New Zealand	34	68%
5. United States of America	34	68%

Due in part to geographical proximity, American surveys were returned much earlier than the surveys from other nations and in large numbers. Although returning their surveys over a shorter period, the Australian and New Zealand experts remarked that their late returns were due in part to "taking advantage of the summer-like weather to go bush" once more before winter came to the southern hemisphere. A great many respondents took the time to write personal letters, send promotional materials on their preparation programs and several went to the extended effort of typing their survey responses and additional comments! There were no indications of a time-ordered trend in the responses of those surveys that were returned. In other words, no evidence was available to support a concern for possible bias on the part of non-respondents.

DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF RESPONDING EXPERTS

Before examining the results of the data analysis, a look at the demographic characteristics of the respondents is warranted to paint a picture of the experts who took the time to answer the questionnaire. Only thirteen (7.7%) of the total respondents were female. A total of 21 (8.4%) female subjects were sampled, indicating that return rates among genders were comparable. The low number of female experts is due to the field of outdoor leadership preparation being heavily dominated by males, as several experts were quick to point out.

The youngest respondent was 28 and the oldest 78 with a mean age of 43.1 years. The group reported a range of from 1 to 60 years experience preparing outdoor leaders (mean = 10.3 years) and a range of from 8 to 73 years doing outdoor pursuits and adventure activities (mean = 26.3 years). When broken down by nation, these reported lengths of experience differed only slightly, indicating that the responding sample were experienced experts.

All respondents from the United Kingdom were native born and several respondents from the other nations were also British in origin. A third (34.2%) of the respondents claimed direct British heritage by birth. This is an interesting fact when one considers the premise of this research is that these nations have founded their outdoor leadership concepts on a commonality of the British Mountain Leadership Scheme.

Experts from North America held a disproportionate number of advanced educational degrees such as masters and doctorates. These experts were mostly university professors and college instructors. Experts from New Zealand were mostly teachers involved in leadership training at local levels or at the national level working in outdoor education centers. Australian experts tended to have involvement at the club and bureaucratic state levels. British experts were mostly wardens and directors of outdoor centers which offered outdoor leadership preparation programs.

Time taken to complete the survey ranged from ten minutes to fourteen hours! A majority (81.1%) took between one and two hours, and the average time taken was 81.5 minutes. Despite this rather long completion time, internal consistency was demonstrated to be sound by cross correlating associated responses. The results suggest that respondents were consistent in their answers, and did not select their answers randomly. In other words, the experts held to their attitudes as they worked through answering the survey.

OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP CONCERNS

Experts were requested to answer three questions relating directly to outdoor leadership concerns. **Item one** asked the experts to give a level of agreement for several statements relating to the principal purposes of preparing outdoor leaders. It was assumed that experts who held a high concern for a certain statement would express agreement with that statement as a reason for preparing outdoor leaders. **Item three** asked the experts to rank order seven current concerns from the field of outdoor leadership. These concerns were closely related to the earlier reasons for preparing outdoor leaders, but were more generally stated. **Item six** asked experts to mark their balance of personal concern on a continuum from environmental protection to participant safety (on a scale of 1 to 5), and then to strike the balance a second and a third time without consideration for litigation or diminishing natural resources. Any shift from the original placement was thought to be due to the presence of either litigation or natural resources concerns. The experts' responses to these three items helped to paint a picture of their greatest concerns associated with preparing outdoor leaders.

ITEM ONE

A principal purpose for preparing competent outdoor leaders is to...

Overall the experts agreed most strongly that the principal purposes for preparing outdoor leaders were: to ensure a positive experience for participants, to teach competence in outdoor skills to participants, to reduce the number of accidents to participants, to reduce the amount of damage to the environment, and to ensure the learning objectives of a program are met. The respondents were less in agreement with other reasons, such as: to maintain positive relations with other outdoor users, to maintain professional standards, to improve the public attitude toward "high risk" activities, to protect the organization from litigation, to increase the number of people involved in the outdoors, and to reduce the money spent on search and rescue callouts. Slight disagreements were noted for statements related to reducing the number of land management regulations, and lowering insurance premiums for outdoor organizations.

More than twenty experts felt that four of these latter less important statements did not apply to their nation. They chose to provide a "not applicable" response to the statements regarding land management regulations, insurance premiums , litigation, and search and rescue costs. These respondents tended to come from the countries of New Zealand and the United Kingdom.

Differences were found on five of thirteen concerns. Experts from the United States agreed more strongly with the belief that preparing outdoor leaders will result in lower insurance premiums than did the experts from Australia, Great Britain and New Zealand. The New Zealand experts agreed less strongly with this same belief than the experts from both Canada and the United States. The New Zealand experts also held the teaching of outdoor skills in higher regard than experts from either Great Britain or Australia. The Australian and New Zealand experts were also in greater agreement with the idea of increasing public participation than were British and American experts. Experts from the United States had a stronger level of agreement regarding protecting the organization from litigation, than did their New Zealand or British counterparts. Furthermore, Canadian experts were close enough to the American experts on this issue to have a higher concern for litigation than the New Zealanders. The American experts were a lot less concerned with maintaining positive user relations than any of the experts from Australia, Great Britain, or New Zealand.

ITEM ONE

A principal purpose for preparing competent outdoor leaders is to...

	PURPOSE	MEAN (S.D.)*	N.A.
1.	Ensure positive experiences	5.48 (0.67)	0
2.	Teach outdoor skills	5.09 (0.80)	2
3.	Reduce number of accidents	5.04 (0.97)	3
4.	Reduce environmental damage	4.78 (0.99)	3
5.	Ensure learning objectives met	4.65 (1.14)	9
6.	Maintain positive user relations	4.21 (1.08)	13
7.	Maintain professional standards	4.12 (1.36)	7
8.	Improve public attitude to "risk"	4.03 (1.17)	8
9.	Protect organ. from litigation	3.46 (1.34)	28
10.	Increase people involved outdoors	3.46 (1.38)	16
11.	Decrease search & rescue costs	3.26 (1.37)	20
12.	Reduce resource regulations	3.00 (1.12)	40
13.	Lower insurance premiums	2.54 (1.27)	38

	DIFFERENCES ON PURPOSES	AUST. Mean	CAN. Mean	G.B. Mean	N.Z. Mean	U.S.A. Mean
2.	Teach outdoor skills	4.88	5.23	4.89	5.38	5.03
6.	Maintain user relations	4.56	4.11	4.40	4.44	3.61
9.	Protect from litigation	3.38	3.75	2.96	2.53	4.22
10.	Increase people involved	4.03	3.36	2.96	4.16	2.76
13.	Lower insurance premiums	2.33	2.74	2.14	1.68	3.23

* REFERENCE SCALE (N.A. indicates no answer given)

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Mildly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

ITEM THREE

Rank order the following seven concerns from most important to least important.

Several natural gaps were apparent in the mean rankings of concerns. These gaps were used to separate the relative levels of importance. **Of greatest current concern** to the experts were enabling the participants to learn and enjoy in the outdoors, and caring for the safety and well-being of the participants. A second concern was protecting the outdoor environment. Of lesser current concern to the experts were: continuing good relations with local resource managers, avoiding a situation involving litigation, maintaining the future existence of the expert's organization, and creating a professional outdoor leadership association.

Differences among nations were found on four of the seven rankings. The analysis showed New Zealand and British experts to be much less concerned with litigation than the American and Canadian experts. On the other hand, the American experts were less concerned than the New Zealand experts when it came to maintaining good relations with the local resource managers. Australian experts were less concerned with maintaining the future existence of their organization than were experts in the United States. The Canadian experts were less concerned with creating a professional organization than were their British, Australian and New Zealand counterparts.

ITEM THREE

Rank order the following concerns from most important to least important.

GREATEST CURRENT CONCERN	MEAN	MEDIAN *
1. Enabling learning & enjoyment	1.85	2
2. Caring for safety & well-being	1.85	2
3. Protecting the environment	2.92	3
4. Continuing good relations	4.83	5
5. Avoiding litigation	5.26	5
6. Maintaining organ. existence	5.55	6
7. Creating professional assoc.	5.77	6

DIFFERENCES ON CONCERNS	AUST Mean	CAN Mean	GB Mean	NZ Mean	USA Mean
4. Good relations	2.69	2.39	2.27	1.88	3.15
5. Avoiding litigation	2.16	1.78	3.09	3.65	1.85
6. Maintain existence	3.28	2.44	2.48	2.26	2.06
7. Profession. organiz.	2.25	2.97	2.39	1.91	2.76

* ITEMS WERE RANK ORDERED ON A SCALE OF 1 to 7

ITEM SIX

Strike a balance between Environmental Protection and Participant Safety

a. Place an 'X' on the line between Environmental Protection and Participant Safety at the point where you balance your personal concern for the two items.

ENVIRONMENTAL |--| PARTICIPANT
PROTECTION SAFETY

b. Imagine for a moment that litigation (arising from participant injury) is not a consideration in striking a balance. Please repeat the placement of the 'X' with this information in mind.

c. Now imagine that diminishing natural resources are not a consideration in striking the balance. Once again, please repeat the placement of the 'X' with this new information in mind.

A majority (73.9%) of the experts sided with participant safety on their initial placement. Although shifts were detected for the second and third placements, most experts maintained a personal concern toward participant safety. This finding is further supported by the consistent positioning of safety concerns above environmental concerns by respondents on other questions.

Without concern for litigation, an insignificant shift toward environmental protection was observed. Without concern for diminishing natural resources a greater and significant shift away from environmental protection was noted. This indicates that a concern for the effect of diminishing natural resources was a greater influence on the mutual concerns of responding experts for participant and environment than was litigation. However, this finding should not be taken out of descriptive context; a concern for safety was paramount at the initial placement. These findings suggest that the over-riding concern is toward safety and that litigation does little to change an already deep concern for the participant's well being. However, the concern for diminishing natural resources does appear to be a secondary influence after the safety concerns. When broken down across nations the same findings were obtained, with one exception. No differences among nations were apparent regarding initial placement on the continuum, and all shifts concerning litigation were insignificant. Absence of concern for diminishing natural resources resulted in a significant shift for the experts of all nations, except New Zealand. The experts from New Zealand appeared to be uninfluenced by a concern for either litigation or diminishing natural resources.

OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP COMPONENTS

Experts were requested to answer three questions relating directly to the importance of fourteen outdoor leadership components. These components were derived from a content analysis of related literature and previous competency based research studies. They were equally divided into seven attributes and seven skills.

Item two asked the experts to give the degree of importance they feel that each component has for the practicing outdoor leader. **Items four and five** asked the experts to independently rank order seven attributes and seven skills of outdoor leadership. Responses to these three items helped to paint a picture of the importance the experts place on outdoor leadership components.

ITEM TWO

An outdoor leader's COMPETENCE in {the component} is:

Experts listed the components of extreme importance to an outdoor leader's competence as: safety skills, judgement based upon experience, and awareness and empathy for others. Also considered to be of importance by the experts were: group management skills, problem solving skills, instructional skills, technical activity skills, flexible leadership style, motivational philosophy and interest, environmental skills, organizational skills, and personable traits and behavior. The components of healthy self-concept and ego, and physical fitness, were still listed as somewhat important to an outdoor leader's competence, but appeared lowest on the list of fourteen.

Differences among nations were found on two of the fourteen components. The analysis revealed that British experts considered organizational skills to be less important than their New Zealand and Australian colleagues and also gave problem solving skills a level of importance significantly lower than experts from any of the other nations.

ITEM TWO

An outdoor leader's COMPETENCE in {the component} is:

COMPONENT	MEAN (S.D.)*	N.A.
1. Safety skills	5.68 (0.48)	0
2. Judgement based on experience	5.55 (0.55)	0
3. Awareness & empathy	5.51 (0.58)	1
4. Group management skills	5.33 (0.62)	0
5. Problem solving skills	5.25 (0.81)	0
6. Instructional skills	5.20 (0.62)	0
7. Technical activity skills	5.15 (0.71)	0
8. Flexible leadership style	5.10 (0.74)	1
9. Motivational philosophy	5.07 (0.79)	1
10. Environmental skills	5.06 (0.76)	0
11. Organizational skills	5.06 (0.68)	0
12. Personable traits & behavior	5.00 (0.74)	1
13. Healthy self-concept & ego	4.88 (0.83)	1
14. Physical fitness	4.68 (0.74)	1

DIFFERENCES ON COMPONENTS	AUST. Mean	CAN. Mean	G.B. Mean	N.Z. Mean	U.S.A Mean
5. Problem solving	5.45	5.34	4.61	5.42	5.39
11. Organization	5.26	4.99	4.88	5.27	4.90

* REFERENCE SCALE (N.A. indicates no answer given)

1	2	3	4	5	6
Extremely Unimportant	Unimportant	Somewhat Unimportant	Somewhat Important	Important	Extremely Important

ITEM FOUR

Rank order the following attributes of competent outdoor leaders from most important to least important.

ITEM FIVE

Rank order the following skills of competent outdoor leaders from most important to least important.

Several natural gaps were apparent in the mean rankings of outdoor leadership attributes and skills. These gaps were used to separate the relative levels of importance. The experts listed judgement based on experience, and awareness and empathy for others as the top two attributes of competent outdoor leaders. The mean ranks of these two attributes were closely comparable. Other attributes such as flexible leadership style, motivational philosophy and interest, healthy self-concept and ego, personable traits and behavior, and physical fitness were all ranked as being of much lower importance. Safety skills were given primary importance by the experts. The other skills involving group management, problem solving, instruction, and technical activity were considered of secondary importance. Organizational and environmental skills were considered to be of tertiary importance by the experts.

No significant differences in rankings of attributes were found among nations. This indicated that, across the nations studied, the experts agree on the relative importance of the seven attributes. However, differences were found on four skills. Analysis of these findings indicated that Canadian experts placed less importance on the ranking of technical activity skills than did New Zealand experts. Australian experts put less emphasis on safety skills than Canadian experts. American and Canadian experts tended to rank organizational skills lower than Australian experts. The British experts ranked problem solving skills lower on the scale of importance when compared with all other experts.

ITEM FOUR

Rank order the following attributes of competent outdoor leaders from most important to least important.

ATTRIBUTES	MEAN	MEDIAN *
1. Judgement based on experience	2.19	1
2. Awareness & empathy	2.47	2
3. Flexible leadership style	4.28	4
4. Motivational philosophy	4.33	4
5. Healthy self-concept & ego	4.64	5
6. Personable traits & behavior	4.68	5
7. Physical fitness	5.42	6

ITEM FIVE

Rank order the following skills of competent outdoor leaders from most important to least important.

SKILLS	MEAN	MEDIAN *
1. Safety skills	2.50	2
2. Group management skills	3.60	3
3. Problem solving skills	3.91	4
4. Technical activity skills	3.94	4
5. Instructional skills	3.94	4
6. Environmental skills	5.04	5
7. Organizational skills	5.06	5

DIFFERENCES ON SKILLS	AUST Mean	CAN Mean	GB Mean	NZ Mean	USA Mean
1. Safety skills	3.22	1.89	2.21	2.62	2.62
3. Problem solving skills	2.34	1.83	3.64	2.88	1.91
4. Technical activity skills	2.84	2.81	2.36	1.97	2.44
7. Organizational skills	2.16	2.78	2.18	2.32	2.85

* ITEMS WERE RANK ORDERED ON A SCALE OF 1 to 7

PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

Two survey items posed questions regarding the relationship of practical experience to the preparation of competent outdoor leaders. Both items required responses in the form of written comments. The experts were all in agreement on both items.

ITEM EIGHT

Would your concept of an outdoor leadership preparation program include a practicum opportunity for the candidate to gain experience through an internship or apprenticeship with direct supervision?

A majority of experts (96.4%) stated that a practicum with opportunity to gain experience through supervised internships or apprenticeships was an important aspect of any preparation program.

ITEM TWELVE

Of what use is EXPERIENCE in the training of outdoor leaders? If appropriate, include in your response the role of past, present, and future experiences for the leadership candidate.

All experts (100%) thought experience was important in preparing outdoor leaders. Some experience doing outdoor activities before preparation as a leader was deemed appropriate. A selection of intensive and extensive experiences during a preparation program was considered to be very important. Upon completion of the program, further opportunities to gain experience were considered equally important. Many respondents felt that a lifetime of experience alone did not make one an outdoor leader. What counts most in their opinion is debriefing of the experiences with a practicing outdoor leader who can assist aspiring leaders to discern the positive experiences from the negative ones and thus "learn from surviving past poor experiences." Many experts commented that experience was worthless without some kind of guided reflection.

TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT

Experts were requested to answer two questions relating directly to the training and assessment of outdoor leadership candidates. Five methods of training and five methods of assessment were considered. **Item nine** asked the experts if they would use the training methods in an outdoor leadership preparation program. Furthermore, for those methods which they would include, they were asked to what extent they would allot time to each method in the preparation program. **Item ten** repeated the procedure for assessment methods and the experts were asked how much weight they would place on each method of assessment. The experts' responses to these two items gave a clear cross-section of how much time they felt should be devoted to each training method, and how much faith they had in each assessment method.

ITEM NINE

Generally, what methods of training would you prefer to use in the preparation of outdoor leadership candidates? What percentage of use would you make of each method?

Majorities of the experts agreed that such methods as field trips, discussions, lectures, simulations, and role playing should be employed in the training of outdoor leaders. The average response of the experts indicated that almost half of the time should be allotted to field trips, with the remaining time divided among the other methods. Comments on training methods were mostly directed toward criticism of training programs which spend too much time indoors and toward a need to get outside into the real-life setting and put theory into practice. The heavy weighting of field trips as opposed to other methods of training is indicative of an overall concern for the importance of experiential learning to outdoor leaders as demonstrated by experts' responses to other survey items.

Only one difference among nations was found for the preference of methods. The significance associated with simulations can be explained by the American experts' consensus to include this method in their training of outdoor leaders, and the low number of British experts who preferred this method.

Differences among nations were evident on two of the five methods. Further analysis showed that one difference was due to Canadian and American experts placing significantly greater emphasis on the use of simulations for training outdoor leaders than Australian or British experts. Another differences was due to British experts suggesting field trips receive a greater time allottment than was suggested by the Americans.

ITEM NINE

Generally, what methods of training would you prefer to use in the preparation of outdoor leadership candidates? What percentage of use would you make of each method?

TRAINING METHOD	PREFERRED	TIME ALLOTTMENT
1. Field Trips	98.8%	49.4%
2. Discussions	97.0%	15.2%
3. Lectures	95.8%	14.7%
4. Simulations	88.6%	11.4%
5. Role Playing	74.9%	8.1%

DIFFERENCES ON PREFERENCES	AUST %-yes	CAN %-yes	G.B. %-yes	N.Z. %-yes	U.S.A. %-yes
4. Simulations	84.4%	91.7%	75.8%	90.6%	100.0%

DIFFERENCES ON ALLOTMENTS	AUST. Mean	CAN. Mean	G.B. Mean	N.Z. Mean	U.S.A. Mean
1. Field Trips	52.7%	46.2%	55.9%	49.5%	42.3%
4. Simulations	7.7%	14.4%	9.5%	11.5%	13.6%

* EXPERTS WERE ASKED TO BE CERTAIN THEIR ALLOTMENTS TOTALLED TO 100%

ITEM TEN

Generally, what method of assessment would you prefer to use in the evaluation of outdoor leadership candidates? What percentage of use would you make of each method?

Majorities of the experts agreed that such methods as program trainers, candidate's self, outside experts, peer leaders, and group followers should be used in the assessment of outdoor leaders. Comments on assessment methods spoke mostly of biases each group would have toward the candidate. Program trainers were considered highly important because they were most recently in touch with the candidate and the program. Outside experts were thought to be a good validity check for the trainer's assessment, but were expected to be less aware of the program process. Followers and peers were considered to be too inexperienced to make accurate assessments. A large number of comments were directed to self-assessment. Many experts felt that inevitably individual leaders should each decide when they are ready to lead groups.

Only two differences among nations were found for the preference of methods. The significance associated with assessment is largely due to Canadian and American experts who advocate the use of peer leaders' opinions over other methods, and the British experts who prefer to use outside experts to assess outdoor leaders.

Differences among nations were evident on four of the five methods for weightings. Further analysis showed that British experts suggested relying more heavily on outside expert opinion than did American, Canadian, or New Zealand experts, and that the Australians also relied more on this method than the Americans. On the other hand, American and Canadian experts suggested relying more on the opinion of group followers and of peer leaders than did the New Zealand, British or Australian experts. New Zealand experts preferred self-assessment above and beyond all other experts.

ITEM TEN

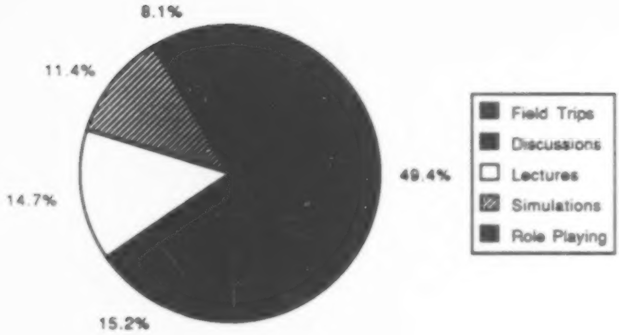
Generally, what method of assessment would you prefer to use in the evaluation of outdoor leadership candidates? What percentage of use would you make of each method?

ASSESSMENT METHOD	PREFERRED	WEIGHTING
1. Program Trainers	95.2%	38.4%
2. Self-Assessment	89.3%	21.7%
3. Outside experts	76.8%	18.5%
4. Peer Leaders	70.8%	12.3%
5. Group Followers	69.0%	8.5%

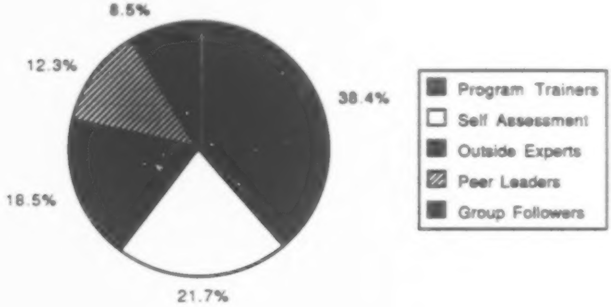
DIFFERENCES ON PREFERENCES	AUST %-yes	CAN %-yes	G.B. %-yes	N.Z. %-yes	U.S.A. %-yes
3. Outside Experts	87.5%	72.2%	93.9%	69.7%	61.8%
4. Peer Leaders	62.5%	88.9%	54.5%	54.5%	91.2%

DIFFERENCES ON WEIGHTINGS	AUST. Mean	CAN. Mean	G.B. Mean	N.Z. Mean	U.S.A. Mean
2. Self-Assessment	17.0%	17.1%	20.8%	35.6%	18.1%
3. Outside Expert	23.6%	16.5%	28.2%	13.8%	10.9%
4. Peer Leaders	9.8%	16.5%	7.0%	9.2%	18.4%
5. Group Followers	6.6%	11.0%	6.8%	6.8%	11.0%

* EXPERTS WERE ASKED TO BE CERTAIN THEIR WEIGHTINGS TOTALLED TO **100%**



The figure above portrays the relative amounts of time alloted by the experts to each training method. The figure below portrays the relative weightings given to each assessment method by the experts. Due to rounding errors precise values do not total to 100%.



SELECTION, PREPARATION AND CERTIFICATION

Experts were asked their preferences for selecting, preparing and certifying outdoor leaders on the basis of the fourteen components. **Item seven** inquired about screening applicants prior to enrollment in an outdoor leadership preparation program. The experts were requested to list the components they felt were prerequisites to selection as an outdoor leadership candidate. **Item eleven** was interested in determining which components should be part of the preparation process. Experts were requested to list those components which were worthy of inclusion in the curriculum of a preparation program.

Item thirteen polled the sample of experts on the topic of certification. **Item fourteen** asked them to consider granting certificates by component, instead of as a single outdoor leadership certificate. Experts were requested to state which components were certifiable in outdoor leadership graduates of a preparation program. **Item fifteen** asked the experts if they would hire certified leaders and **item sixteen** asked if they believed a certificate assured sound judgement.

For each item requiring a yes or no response, a Chi-square goodness-of-fit test was employed to establish statistical majorities. Depending on the sample size and number of response options, as much as 70% or more might be required to constitute a statistical majority, as opposed to a mere 50% or more indicating a democratic majority.

FURTHER STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The issue of certification was shown in a review of literature to be a topic of continuing debate in the field of outdoor leadership preparation. This study aimed to take a close look at the opinions of the experts regarding this issue. As was fully expected, the descriptive results showed that a majority opinion was not present among experts and that many were undecided on this critical issue. Additional results demonstrated that preferences for certification were significantly different among nations, and that between nation differences were also apparent for the individual components of outdoor leadership competence.

Specifically, the certification of judgement based upon experience was the topic of some disagreement among national experts. Judgement was discussed in the literature review as the crux of the certification debate. To this end, further analysis was carried out using the experts' preference for certification. Only proponents and opponents of outdoor leadership certification were considered, since fairly equal numbers of these two categories were obtained. Some extremely interesting findings were arrived at that shed new light on the issue of outdoor leadership certification.

ITEM SEVEN

Which of the following components would you consider in the selection process?

Almost all experts felt enthusiasm was desirable in outdoor leadership candidates. Prior logged experience and involvement in outdoor pursuits or adventure activities was also preferred by most experts. A majority opinion was not reached on age as a necessary prerequisite. Some experts stated a minimum of the legal adult age as appropriate, other were more interested in level of maturity. Many experts would not select for gender. Those who did comment on gender as a concern for screening applicants, stated that they would select more women outdoor leadership candidates, to offset a heavily male dominated field.

Of the fourteen outdoor leadership components, it was generally agreed that physical fitness, motivational philosophy and interest, awareness and empathy, personable traits and behavior, healthy self-concept and ego, technical activity skills, and safety skills were all important prerequisites for outdoor leadership applicants to hold prior to training. Statistical majorities were not apparent for judgement based upon experience, environmental skills, and organizational skills, problem solving skills, flexible leadership style, instructional skills, and group management skills. The trend appeared to be that during the screening process of the outdoor leadership candidates, the experts would prefer to select for certain attributes and then concentrate more on skills development during the preparation process.

Differences among nations resulted on six of the fourteen outdoor leadership components. Scrutiny at the cellular level indicated that experts from certain nations placed more or less emphasis on these significant components than would otherwise have been expected (given all responses equal across the nations). Canadian experts placed considerably greater emphasis on selecting for safety skills, environmental skills, instructional skills, group management skills, problem solving skills, and flexible leadership style than expected. Australian experts placed much less emphasis on selecting for these same components. A greater preference for selection by Canadian and American experts, coupled with less concern on the part of the British, New Zealand, and Australian experts, accounted for the significance associated with these six components.

ITEM SEVEN

Which of the following components would you consider in the selection process?

	COMPONENTS	YES	Percent	NO	Percent	N.A.
1.	Physical Fitness	143	85.6% *	24	14.4%	2
2.	Philosophy/Interest	142	84.5% *	26	15.5%	1
3.	Awareness/Empathy	141	83.9% *	27	16.1%	1
4.	Personal Traits/Behavior	138	81.7% *	31	18.3%	0
5.	Healthy Self-concept/Ego	138	81.7% *	31	18.3%	0
6.	Technical Activity Skills	130	77.4% *	38	22.6%	1
7.	Safety Skills	124	73.8% *	44	26.2%	1
8.	Judgement	111	65.7%	58	34.3%	0
9.	Environmental Skills	102	60.7%	66	39.3%	1
10.	Organizational Skills	99	59.3%	68	40.7%	2
11.	Problem Solving Skills	97	57.4%	72	42.6%	0
12.	Flexible Leadership Style	90	53.3%	79	46.7%	0
13.	Instructional Skills	89	53.0%	79	47.0%	1
14.	Group Management Skills	80	47.6%	88	52.4%	1
15.	Enthusiasm	164	97.0% *	5	3.0%	0
16.	Logged Experience	130	76.9% *	39	23.1%	0
17.	Age	115	68.0%	54	32.0%	0
18.	Gender	30	17.8%	139	82.2% *	0

* indicates statistical majority determined by goodness-of-fit test.

	DIFFERENCES ON PREFERENCES	AUST %-yes	CAN %-yes	G.B. %-yes	N.Z. %-yes	U.S.A. %-yes
7.	Safety	54.8%	86.1%	69.7%	76.5%	79.4%
9.	Environmental	45.2%	86.1%	51.5%	52.9%	64.7%
11.	Problem Solving	40.6%	80.6%	42.4%	47.1%	73.5%
12.	Flexible Style	31.3%	72.2%	48.5%	50.0%	61.8%
13.	Instructional	38.7%	80.6%	39.4%	38.2%	64.7%
14.	Group Management	25.8%	69.4%	42.4%	32.4%	64.7%

RESPONDENTS HAD THE OPTION OF ANSWERING **YES** OR **NO**
SOME CHOSE TO GIVE NO ANSWER (N.A.)

ITEM ELEVEN

Would you include the components listed in the curriculum of an outdoor leadership preparation program?

The experts felt that many of the components should be included in the curriculum of a preparation program. Support was found for including safety skills, group management skills, instructional skills, technical activity skills, environmental skills, organizational skills, problem solving skills, flexible leadership style, awareness and empathy, and judgement based upon experience. No definitive opinions were found for motivational philosophy and interest, physical fitness, personable traits behaviors, and healthy self-concept and ego. For the most part, skills were preferred over attributes for inclusion in the outdoor leadership preparation program.

The experts appeared to be in agreement with the curriculum content of an outdoor leadership preparation program, except for one of the fourteen components. The difference was due to the Australian experts excluding the component of healthy self-concept and ego in greater numbers than any other nation's experts.

ITEM ELEVEN

Would you include the components listed in the curriculum of an outdoor leadership preparation program?

COMPONENTS	YES	Percent	NO	Percent	N.A.
1. Safety Skills	165	99.4% *	1	0.6%	3
2. Group Management Skills	161	97.0% *	5	3.0%	3
3. Instructional Skills	160	96.4% *	6	3.6%	3
4. Technical Activity Skills	159	95.8% *	7	4.2%	3
5. Environmental Skills	156	94.5% *	9	5.5%	4
6. Organizational Skills	153	92.2% *	13	7.8%	3
7. Problem Solving Skills	149	89.8% *	17	10.2%	3
8. Flexible Leadership Style	147	88.6% *	19	11.4%	3
9. Awareness/Empathy	125	75.8% *	40	24.2%	4
10. Judgement	122	73.9% *	43	26.1%	4
11. Philosophy/Interest	100	60.2%	66	39.8%	3
12. Physical Fitness	97	58.4%	69	41.6%	3
13. Personal Traits/Behavior	85	51.5%	80	48.5%	4
14. Healthy Self-concept/Ego	79	47.9%	86	52.1%	4

* indicates statistical majority determined by goodness-of-fit test.

DIFFERENCE ON PREFERENCES	AUST %-yes	CAN %-yes	G.B. %-yes	N.Z. %-yes	U.S.A. %-yes
14. Self-concept/Ego	21.9%	51.4%	53.1%	53.1%	58.8%

RESPONDENTS HAD THE OPTION OF ANSWERING **YES** OR **NO**
SOME CHOSE TO GIVE NO ANSWER (N.A.)

ITEM THIRTEEN

Are you in agreement with the certification of outdoor leaders?

The opinion of experts toward certification of outdoor leaders was polled. No agreement was apparent, with equal numbers supporting and opposing the concept. Several experts refused to provide a definitive answer, preferring instead to comment on the pros and cons of the argument without becoming committed. An alternative to certification was mentioned: the accreditation of programs preparing outdoor leaders rather than evaluation of the individuals themselves. Profound differences were apparent across nations, with only the Australian and British experts favoring certification and the experts from other nations opposing it for the most part.

Once the experts' preference for outdoor leadership certification had been established, a secondary analysis of earlier survey items was possible. Proponents and opponents to outdoor leadership certification did not differ significantly on their stated importance of the fourteen components, or on their preferences for selection, training, assessment and preparation curriculum. Regardless of preference for certification of outdoor leaders, these experts agreed on the content and structure of an outdoor leadership preparation program.

Proponents of certification showed stronger levels of agreement than did opponents on statements of preparing outdoor leaders to reduce search and rescue costs, to reduce accidents, to increase public participation, to improve the public attitude toward "high risk" activities, and to maintain positive relations with other users. An interpretation of this finding might be that the experts who advocate certification feel that by certifying outdoor leaders, the current concerns of the field will be effectively dealt with.

Additionally, differences in rankings of current concerns were detected regarding the desire to avoid litigation and to maintain the existence of the expert's organization. Proponents of certification placed a concern for avoiding litigation and maintaining their organizations above that of opponents.

ITEM THIRTEEN

Are you in agreement with the certification of outdoor leaders?

PREFERENCE	NUMBER	Percent
Proponent	76	45.0%
Opponent	71	42.0%
Undecided	22	13.0%

DIFFERENCES ON CERTIFICATION	AUST %-yes	CAN %-yes	G.B. %-yes	N.Z. %-yes	U.S.A. %-yes
Proponent	65.6%	41.7%	63.6%	23.5%	32.4%
Opponent	28.1%	55.6%	21.2%	58.8%	44.1%
Undecided	6.3%	2.8%	15.2%	17.6%	23.5%

DIFFERENCES ON CONCERNS BY PREFERENCE	PROPONENTS Mean	OPPONENTS Mean
3. Reduce Accidents	5.11	4.68
6. Maintain Good Relations	4.54	3.90
8. Improve Public Attitude	4.26	3.69
10. Increase people involved	3.68	3.04
11. Search & Rescue Costs	3.58	2.93

RESPONDENTS HAD THE OPTION OF ANSWERING YES OR NO
SOME CHOSE TO REMAIN UNDECIDED ON THE ISSUE

ITEM FOURTEEN

Which components would you consider granting a certificate of competence for?

This item provided the option of certifying outdoor leaders on the basis of individual components. Several respondents commented that an outdoor leadership certificate under any guise was most undesirable, and others mentioned that a certificate in pieces was of little use to the field. Nonetheless, the experts felt that certification of technical activity skills and safety skills was acceptable overall. Opposition was found to certifying healthy self-concept and ego, personable traits and behavior, motivational philosophy, awareness and empathy for others, flexible leadership style, physical fitness, judgement based upon experience, and problem solving skills. Agreement was lacking for certification of instructional skills, environmental skills, organizational skills, and group management skills.

Only two of the fourteen components were found to differ across nations on preferences to certify. Differences on the components of environmental and group management skills stems from New Zealand experts asserting these should not be certified and the other experts favoring these items as important pieces of any outdoor leadership certificate.

An interesting note concerning these results is that a considerable number of the certification proponents do not desire certification of all components. Comments regarding this fact indicate that certification of outdoor leaders may be interpreted by some experts as being a guarantee of technical activity or safety skills only. Many experts favored outdoor leadership certification, but only at the level of these two components. Further statistical analysis of this occurrence follows.

ITEM FOURTEEN

Which components would you consider granting a certificate of competence for?

COMPONENTS	YES	Percent	NO	Percent	N.A.
1. Technical Activity Skills	115	72.8% *	43	27.2%	11
2. Safety Skills	110	69.6% *	48	30.4%	11
3. Instructional Skills	83	52.9%	74	47.1%	12
4. Environmental Skills	69	44.2%	87	55.8%	13
5. Organizational Skills	62	39.5%	95	60.5%	12
6. Group Management Skills	60	38.2%	97	61.8%	12
7. Problem Solving Skills	42	26.9%	114	73.1% *	13
8. Judgement	41	26.3%	115	73.7% *	13
9. Physical Fitness	33	21.0%	124	79.0% *	12
10. Flexible Leadership Style	32	20.5%	124	79.5% *	13
11. Awareness/Empathy	28	17.6%	130	82.4% *	11
12. Philosophy/Interest	24	15.3%	133	84.7% *	12
13. Personal Traits/Behavior	22	14.0%	135	86.0% *	12
14. Healthy Self-concept/Ego	21	13.4%	136	86.6% *	12

* indicates statistical majority determined by goodness-of-fit test.

DIFFERENCES ON PREFERENCES	AUST %-yes	CAN %-yes	G.B. %-yes	N.Z. %-yes	U.S.A. %-yes
4. Environmental	32.1%	51.4%	51.6%	25.8%	58.1%
6. Group Management	51.7%	37.1%	58.1%	12.9%	32.3%

RESPONDENTS HAD THE OPTION OF ANSWERING YES OR NO
SOME CHOSE TO GIVE NO ANSWER (N.A.)

AGREEMENT REACHED ON CERTIFICATION ?

Regarding the certification of individual components of outdoor leadership, significant differences across proponents and opponents of certification were found. Significant findings were evident for all components. The significance of the test statistic is due to unexpectedly large shifts at the cellular level. For example, given equal numbers of proponents and opponents, we would expect their preferences for certifying each component to side with their overall preference for certification of outdoor leaders, and for a dichotomy pro/con to arise for every component. This is not the case for many components. Observed responses from the experts indicate that on the components of technical activity and safety skills, the proponents prefer certification, and the opponents are equally divided on whether to certify for those components. Also, the proponents are equally divided on the components of judgement and problem solving skills, while opponents are completely against certifying these components.

A middle ground is evident for several of the components. From the relative percentages indicating affirmative responses, the results show that those who oppose certification are accepting of certification of technical and safety skills and those who support certification may not accept an all inclusive certificate. Hence a point of compromise appears evident: the certification of technical activity and safety skills, but not of judgement or problem solving skills. No clear cut answer is apparent for the other skills which failed to gain a descriptive majority.

AGREEMENT REACHED ON CERTIFICATION ?

DIFFERENCES ON COMPONENTS BY PREFERENCE	PROPONENTS %-yes	OPPONENTS %-yes
1. Technical Activity Skills	93.0%	51.4%
2. Safety Skills	87.3%	50.0%
3. Instructional Skills	78.9%	22.9%
4. Environmental Skills	64.3%	25.7%
5. Organizational Skills	62.0%	15.7%
6. Group Management Skills	63.4%	8.6%
7. Problem Solving Skills	47.9%	4.3%
8. Judgement based upon experience	46.5%	2.9%
9. Physical Fitness	28.2%	11.4%
10. Flexible Leadership Style	39.4%	1.4%
11. Awareness/Empathy	35.2%	1.4%
12. Philosophy/Interest	31.0%	0.0%
13. Personal Traits/Behavior	26.8%	1.4%
14. Healthy Self-concept/Ego	25.4%	1.4%

ITEM FIFTEEN

Would you hire people for outdoor leadership roles if they held related certificates?

Again divided responses affirming (46.0%) and disputing (27.3%) the value of certificates as they relate to employment were given. A substantial group of experts (26.7%) replied that they would consider the value of the certificate, yet would hire the outdoor leader on the basis of other qualities. Many experts mentioned the need to actually observe the applicant in a leadership role before they could make a hiring decision.

No significant differences across nations were found for this item. This indicates that, as far as nationality is concerned, the responding experts are not in disagreement with regard to hiring certified outdoor leaders. However, differences were apparent when the expert's preference for certification was considered. More proponents (66.2%) would hire certified outdoor leaders, than opponents (26.9%).

ITEM SIXTEEN

Are you in agreement with the belief that an outdoor leadership certificate assures sound judgement on the part of the individual holding the certificate?

Item sixteen asked the experts if they believed a certificate assured sound judgement. Most experts (88.6%) said no, some (8.4%) said yes, and a few (3.0%) qualified their answers on the basis of whether the certificate purported to actually certify leadership in terms of judgement or by some other components.

No significant differences across nations were found for this item. Overall, and regardless of nationality, the experts agree that a certificate does not assure sound judgement. However, differences were apparent when the expert's preference for certification was considered. Only a few opponents (1.4%) and some of the supporters (15.8%) of certification stated that a certificate is assurance of an outdoor leader's sound judgement. Advocates believed this in greater number than critics.

EXPERTS' COMMENTS

Experts were given the opportunity to make any final comments they felt might relate in some manner to the research study. Many experts took the opportunity to write down their thoughts. Two specific questions guided their responses. **Item seventeen** asked for changes they would make to existing outdoor leadership preparation programs. **Item eighteen** asked the experts for a description of any national characteristics which might set their nation apart from the those of the other experts and help to explain some of the differences in responses which were expected across nations.

ITEM SEVENTEEN

What things would you change in the current training and assessment schemes, if you had the opportunity?

Experts were asked to comment on the current shortcomings of the outdoor leadership preparation programs in their nations, and to specifically suggest where changes were needed. Totals of respondents for each nation are given, along with the relative percentages of experts from each nation who commented.

Overall, the comments provided by the experts showed a wide variety of concerns both among and within nations. Two themes were common to all nations. First, the point regarding a need to increase government funding of outdoor leadership preparation was raised. Second, experts who commented on program curricula did so with a thought to reducing "hard" skills training and emphasizing the "soft" skills in their place.

Australian experts (n = 32) mentioned a need to change the content of their preparation programs away from pure technical skills. Some (22%) felt that the technical skills should be obtained prior to enrollment in a preparation program. Many (38%) suggested including more emphasis on the "soft " skills. Others (16%) preferred to train heavily for safety skills above all other skills. Further to these changes in course content, they saw a need to improve communication among state training agencies, to attempt standardization of the state programs and to develop a national center for outdoor leadership development, like those popular in Britain. Many criticisms (44%) were levelled at the quality of trainers and assessors in the programs. Concerns were voiced that well meaning volunteers were inconsistent in their training and assessment of candidates. The need for professional trainers, outside experts, and lengthy field assessment under actual conditions were mentioned.

Canadian experts (n = 36) also saw a need for more communication among provinces active in outdoor leadership preparation. Again, the experts felt too many programs dealt only with technical activity skills and could do well to add training of "people" skills. The desire for a nationally standardized core curriculum, with provinces building on the foundation with regionally specific modules was mentioned by a few experts (11%). Several calls (31%) for doing away with outdoor leadership certification were made.

The British experts (n = 33) wrote by far the most comments on this question and as a nation were by far the least in agreement on changes which should be made. One trend which was particularily noticeable was the call for increasing training courses and decreasing assessment courses. Assessment was thought to be the domain of the national outdoor pursuits centers, where high standards could be maintained. It was suggested that more effort be placed on communicating important information to aspiring leaders, and that testing technical ability be strongly de-emphasized. Several experts (15%) called for a move toward inclusion of environmental ethics in the preparation program, citing a "badly thrashed outdoors" as their prime reason. Many experts (36%) mentioned the need to gain real life experience as an outdoor leader. They recommended training and assessment sessions be held under actual field conditions, using the type of group with which leaders are most likely to work.

New Zealand experts (n = 34) mentioned the need for pre-service and in-service training for teachers. The development of a tertiary degree program in outdoor education with emphasis on leadership preparation was the popular approach. The current approach of the Mountain Safety Council was seen to fall short. Improvements were suggested including the use of professional instructors, perhaps imported from overseas, and abolishing the "badge system" of volunteer leaders. Referring to the dissolution of the Outdoor Training Advisory Board, several experts (21%) called for its immediate reinstatement and a return to the model program of past years.

In the United States, the experts (n = 34) suggested changes that were mostly concerned with certification: how to get it and how to avoid getting it! Beyond the usual arguments, a need for an experiential learning approach to preparation was mentioned several times (35%). Communication networks were supported as an important means to standardize the multitude of outdoor leadership preparation programs. The interest in standardizing the programs stemmed from an over-riding concern that private interests were attempting to monopolize the outdoor leadership preparation/certification field.

ITEM EIGHTEEN

Please describe any national characteristics and their possible influences which may determine the way outdoor leaders are prepared in your country.

The experts carefully delineated concerns regarding geography, politics, economics, and culture which they felt made them unique in outdoor leadership preparation. The following descriptions were provided by the experts, and the researcher has quoted some census data from Information Please Almanac, Atlas and Year Book (1986) to aid in comparison across nations. The relative population densities of the five nations place Great Britain as most dense, followed by the United States, New Zealand, Canada, and Australia.

Australia is a large country (3.0 million square miles), about equal in size to the contiguous United States, but with a much smaller population (15.5 million in 1984). The people are distributed along the coastal regions, with the mountainous areas and whitewater rivers located in the southeastern portion, mostly in the states of Victoria and Tasmania. Experts identified these two states as the location for increased outdoor use (due to greater leisure time) and subsequent increases in school adventure education and outdoor leadership preparation. They felt that vast regional differences existed, necessitating the need to better train leaders for a wide variety of roles and settings. Many (24%) mentioned these regional differences and the political autonomy of states as a barrier to developing national standards, professional trainers, and unified organizations in outdoor leadership preparation.

Several experts (15%) stated a low demand for professional outdoor leaders, but put the training emphasis on school teachers who are the only ones permitted to lead school children in outdoor pursuits in most states. A few (9%) mentioned that the public attitude in Australia is such that teachers are incorrectly "assumed to be competent outdoor leaders by their very position in society." Furthermore, one expert related stories of Physical Education teachers with similar attitudes. Some experts (12%) cited a traditional British influence, tempered by recent "Americanization," in their culture as a possible reason for this. Additionally, one thought that "a fear of litigation was being imported" from North America to Australia, threatening to "choke the spirit of adventure."

Canada is the second largest nation in the world after the U.S.S.R. (3.9 million square miles), with a moderate population (25.1 million in 1984) spread along the border with the United States of America. The large mountains are located in the western provinces of British Columbia and Alberta, with many lakes and cliffs dotting the eastern provinces of Ontario, Quebec, and Nova Scotia. This wide separation was often cited as the cause of communication problems among outdoor leadership trainers and also prevented organization on a national scale. The further concern for the province of Quebec "acting as a nation unto itself" was mentioned by two experts as a contributing factor to disorganization. Others (19%) felt that the federal and provincial governments were at odds over outdoor resources making nationalized outdoor leadership preparation difficult. Economic recession was seen as a protection from too much government intervention, and also as the reason no money is available for program expansion and center development.

The undue influence of Europeans, Americans, and especially the British Mountain Leadership Scheme were cited as reasons for disparity among preparation programs. One expert paralleled the American influence in Canada by commenting on increased litigation and skyrocketing insurance rates as possible determinants of future certification trends. Another voiced concern that "Canadians trust government and thus may become certified before the Americans are forced to."

Great Britain is really a tiny grouping of four countries occupying a small land mass (94 thousand square miles). The major mountain regions include Snowdonia in Wales, the Cairngorm Highlands of Scotland, the Lake District in England, and the Mountains of Mourne in Northern Ireland. The population is enormous (56.0 million in 1984) for the size of the nation, and consequently the easily accessed land is overrun by people. Therefore, the environment in Britain is deeply in need of protection and environmental ethics are seen as a newly emerging trend in outdoor leadership.

The single most important influence in the British culture was viewed by the experts as tradition. They mentioned "white middle-class male leaders" with a focus on the task and not the group, a "military approach" to leadership training, and a belief in the "survival of the safest" all contributing to a preparation program weighted down by pure technical and safety skills training. They further cited an "inbred public suspicion" of developing interpersonal skills, group management skills, counseling techniques, and psychology as contributing to avoidance of including "soft" skills in current preparation programs.

High unemployment was considered a major problem in the United Kingdom. A government solution was the training of youth for greater employment. These employment initiatives made use of adventure education as one part of the program. This brought a still greater increase in outdoor use and created a new need for outdoor leaders. However, the emphasis was then shifted to "people centered activities" and the old format for outdoor leadership preparation once again failed to keep pace. In the hurry to catch up and keep training costs low, the preparation programs were made short and consequently they concentrated on "hard" skills to the detriment of other important components.

Several experts (24%) mentioned a commitment on the part of educational authorities to outdoor training. However, some educational authorities were pressured into getting their teachers certified and consequently encouraged "short cuts" at the expense of gaining personal experience. Unfortunately, regimented safety procedures were substituted for judgement gained by practical experience. One expert summed this up neatly, when stating that there was an attitude toward dependent learning and an avoidance of problem solving and experiential learning "borne out of the instructional style of Physical Education inherited from the army tradition."

New Zealand has a similar land mass to Great Britain (104 thousand square miles), but has a minute population (3.3 million in 1984) by comparison. This makes for a tight and successful communication network among experts. New Zealand is composed of two major islands: the North with several volcanic peaks, and the South with glaciated mountain ranges. Easy access to the outdoors is afforded anyone regardless of their location, since both the mountains and the ocean are within a short drive of most major cities. Many experts (41%) commented that "the outdoors is traditionally a way of life" in New Zealand culture. Historically, there has been no need to formally train outdoor leaders and professional leaders are rarely hired. Several experts (26%) mentioned the "Kiwi ingenuity" and the development of many competent outdoor leaders through the "club system" and volunteer training schemes at the "grass roots" level. One expert embodied this characteristic when stating "a highly competent pool of amateurs has made recognition of professionals very slow."

Experts (59%) repeatedly enforced the point that Kiwis were strongly independent and definitely a "do it yourself" people, who refuse externally imposed systems such as certification. Others (12%) mentioned that New Zealand as a nation tends to be "conservative, traditional, authoritative, and slow to change." New Zealand experiences "few problems as those prevalent in America." The experts (47%) mentioned the government operated Accident Compensation Corporation which obviates the need for any type of injury litigation and therefore allows an open approach to risk taking and adventure education. There is "little economic exploitation of the natural resources, hence no need for land regulations." The new threat over New Zealand is the pending impact of adventure tourism as people begin to discover the isolated nation as the "world's best outdoor recreation playground."

The United States of America is smaller than Canada (3.6 million square miles), but with almost ten times the population (236.7 million in 1984). The major mountain ranges are located in the western states, and in the northeastern quarter, with many lakes and rivers contained in the north and central portions of the nation. The wide variety of environments, as in some other nations, was considered to be the reason for a growing dependence on regionally specific technical activity skills in preparation programs.

Concerns for experts in the United States were the growing insurance crisis, land regulatory constraints, and litigation. Comments such as "insurance coverage now dictates whether an outdoor organization stays in business" and "litigation encourages high insurance rates" were quite common (29%). Outdoor recreation is regulated differently by state and federal governments and hence any hope of nationally organized preparation program standards was not possible according to some experts (18%). The development of such standards was further hampered by "an American cultural fetish for individualism." One expert put this well when he said "as a society of specialists we encourage technical skill development and shy away from values clarification, environmental ethics, and counseling techniques." Another added "we are a sedentary society with a burning desire to be led" and "to expect we will be taught how to recreate." Hence the high demand for outdoor leaders, as they "are trained with the least effort or rushed out to lead and make the greatest profit for their organization."

Many experts (32%) considered outdoor leadership certification to be characteristic of their nation, and thus took the opportunity to discuss the issue at length. "Certification will not solve any problems or make activities more safe" said one expert. Others (24%) echoed the concern with comments like these: "Several self-serving groups want to be the certifiers of outdoor leadership to insure prestige and profit" and "no program has a broad enough formula or following to be considered the foremost important business in outdoor leadership certification." On the other side of the coin were comments from experts (12%) directed to resolving the debate and moving forward such as "do away with petty rivalries and the belief that we're not all of the same intelligence or intent" and "politics and the legal climate scare those organizations which should be providing certification now!"

RELATIONSHIPS OF CONCERNS AND COMPONENTS

Following a determination of differences among the means of nations on attitudes and approaches to outdoor leadership preparation, the major aim of this study was to explain these differerences on the basis of national characteristics. To make such explanations possible, knowledge of the relationships regarding outdoor leadership concerns and outdoor leadership components was necessary. This knowledge was obtained in three steps.

First, grouping the concerns and separately grouping the components on the basis of commonalities provided information on how these characteristics were intra-related. This was accomplished by a factor analysis, which created factors or groups of common variables. Once grouped these new factors were accordingly named. These factors could then be used to better explain differences discovered earlier in the data. Two factor analyses were carried out on **item one** related to current outdoor leadership concerns and on **item two** related to the importance of the fourteen components.

Second, linear multiple regression analysis was performed to investigate common linkages between five concerns of **item one** considered individually and the fourteen components of **item two**. Four of the five concerns used were chosen for their position atop the list of purposes for preparing outdoor leaders. These included concerns for safety, environment, teaching outdoor skills, and ensuring a positive experience. The fifth concern of litigation was considered due to a high ranking and rating among North American experts. Concerns were selected as dependent variables, since it was assumed that the experts were likely to deem certain components more effective than others in dealing with such critical concerns. In other words, the resolution of each concern was seen to depend upon some combination of the fourteen components of outdoor leadership preparation.

Third, predicting nationality on the basis of all the concerns and all the components demonstrated the uniqueness of these characteristics to each nation. This last step required the use of discriminant analysis to predict the experts' nationality from their responses. Discriminant analysis enables such a separation of nationality on the basis of functions or representative groups of predictor variables. This analysis explored the ability of 47 variables from **items one** to **five** to discriminate among 90 experts from the five nations. The variables represented questions on the purposes for preparing outdoor leaders, the importance of the fourteen components, the ranking of current concerns, the rankings of skills, and the rankings of attributes.

GROUPING CONCERNS

Factors for the first analysis were named according to commonalities among the concerns (purposes for preparing outdoor leaders) which loaded on that factor. Land use regulations, positive relations with other users, the public attitude toward "high risk" activities, search and rescue costs, and public participation rates, were all labelled as PUBLIC/USER related concerns. Issues of litigation protection, insurance premiums, and professional standards were all related to concerns of LIABILITY. Concerns for positive experiences, accidents, environmental damage, and meeting objectives were all grouped under the heading of ACTIVITY related concerns. The single concern of teaching outdoor skills, which loaded by itself onto one factor, was deemed an EDUCATION related concern. This first analysis demonstrated which concerns might be intra-related with others.

CONCERNS	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Related to:	Public/User	Liability	Activity	Education
Search & Rescue Cost	+0.79			
Land Use Regulations	+0.67			
Public "Risk" Attitude	+0.66			
Positive Relations	+0.65			
Public Participation	+0.52			
Insurance Premiums		+0.76		
Litigation Protection		+0.70		
Profession Standards		+0.64		
Positive Experience			+0.81	
Environmental Damage			+0.72	
Accidents			+0.66	
Meet Objectives			+0.50	
Teach Outdoor Skills				+0.81

THE NUMBERS ON THIS PAGE, AND ON THE NEXT, REPRESENT THE DEGREE TO WHICH EACH CONCERN OR COMPONENT LOADS ONTO (or is closely associated with) A GIVEN FACTOR.

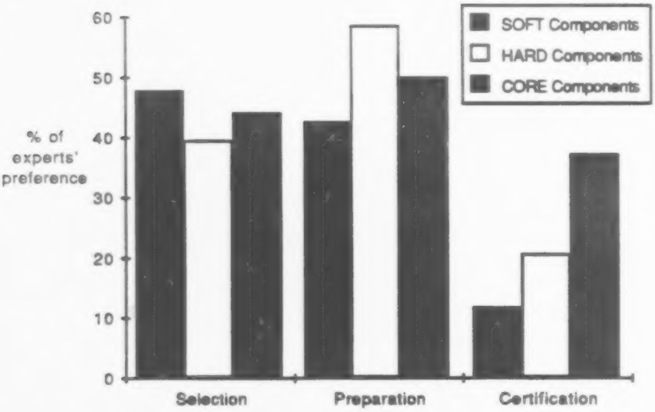
GROUPING COMPONENTS

Factors for the second analysis were named in keeping with terms commonly used in outdoor leadership preparation. SOFT components, those considered by the field to be difficult to train and assess for, included awareness and empathy, motivational philosophy and interest, personable traits and behavior, healthy self-concept and ego, flexible leadership style, and group management skills. HARD components, those considered by the field to be easily trained and assessed, were physical fitness, environmental skills, problem solving skills, organizational skills, flexible leadership style, and safety skills. CORE components were those deemed critically important in the preparation of outdoor leaders and included technical activity skills, instructional skills, judgement, and safety skills.

It is interesting to note that two components (* flexible leadership style and safety skills) loaded on more than one factor. This indicates that flexible leadership style may be considered to be a hard and a soft component, and that safety skills are both a hard and a core component.

COMPONENTS	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Considered to be:	Soft	Hard	Core
Awareness/Empathy	+0.74		
Philosophy/Interest	+0.73		
Traits/Behavior	+0.68		
Self-concept/Ego	+0.57		
Flexible Style *	+0.53		
Group Management	+0.50		
Physical Fitness		+0.72	
Environmental		+0.67	
Problem Solving		+0.64	
Organizational		+0.56	
Flexible Style *		+0.52	
Safety *		+0.45	
Technical Activity			+0.82
Instructional			+0.60
Judgement			+0.59
Safety *			+0.53

* indicates a component that loaded on more than one factor.



The second analysis examined which components might be closely associated with one another. From these groupings of common variables, the experts' preferences for selection, preparation and certification of components were re-examined by factors. Percentages, representing the experts' preference for each factor, were calculated from the raw "factor scores" and the overall percentages assigned by the experts in the descriptive results to the selection, preparation and certification processes. A factor score is a value which represents the average of all those variables which load onto that factor and in relative proportion to the variables' loading coefficients. These newly generated percentages for each factor were plotted for selection, preparation and certification, and the outcome was graphed.

From the graph above, soft components are the preferred factor of selection, hard components are the choice during preparation, and core components are highest for consideration during certification. Overall, certification preferences are considerably lower than those for selection and preparation. This is due to the large number of experts who stood opposed to certification of outdoor leaders. A point of interest regarding the graph is the close parallel relation between hard components and core components for the selection and preparation processes. This indicates that for selection and preparation core and hard components are considered equivalent.

ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN CONCERNS AND COMPONENTS

Variance on the importance of safety skills explained 19% of the variance on reducing accidents; and, similarly, variance on environmental skills accounted for 20% of the variance on reducing environmental damage. These two concerns had initially strong zero order correlations with their respective outdoor leadership components. These results indicated that the experts felt strongly that these two components were important enough to contribute to a significant association with the two concerns. In other words, experts with a high concern for reducing environmental damage or accidents also gave environmental skills and safety skills a high rating of importance.

Aggregate variance on the two components of instructional skills and problem solving skills explained 14% of the variance on the concern to teach competence in outdoor skills to participants. Experts with high concern for teaching outdoor skills rated these two components higher in importance than other components.

CONCERN: **Reducing Accidents**

Step	COMPONENT	R	R^2
1	Safety Skills	.44	.19

CONCERN: **Reducing Environmental Damage**

Step	COMPONENT	R	R^2
1	Environmental Skills	.45	.20

CONCERN: **Teaching Outdoor Skills**

Step	COMPONENT	R	R^2
1	Instructional Skills	.30	.09
2	Problem Solving Skills	.38	.14

The concern for litigation is apparently centered in North America. Responding experts felt that five components in combination with one another were strongly associated with this concern. Overall, 27% of the variance on litigation was accounted for by the combined variance on safety skills, on flexible leadership style, on problem solving skills, on group management skills, and on personable traits and behaviors. Experts highly concerned with litigation rated safety skills, problem solving skills, and personable traits and behaviors high in importance, while also rating flexible leadership style and group management skills low in importance.

CONCERN: **Protect Organization from Litigation**

Step	COMPONENT	R	R^2
1	Safety Skills	.30	.09
2	Flexible Leadership Style	.38	.14
3	Problem Solving Skills	.43	.18
4	Group Management Skills	.48	.23
5	Traits/Behaviors	.52	.27

THE NUMBERS ON THIS PAGE (AS WELL AS ON THE PREVIOUS AND FOLLOWING PAGES) INDICATE THE DEGREE OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN A SINGLE CONCERN AND ONE OR MORE COMPONENTS. THEY REPRESENT THE COMBINED EFFECT OF COMPONENTS TAKEN AS A GROUP, RATHER THAN EACH STANDING ALONE.

A HIGH 'R' VALUE (Regression Coefficient) INDICATES THAT THE ASSOCIATION IS A CLOSE ONE. THE SQUARE OF THIS 'R' VALUE REFERS TO **EXPLAINED VARIANCE** COMMON TO BOTH THE CONCERN AND THE GROUP OF COMPONENTS.

IN AN ATTEMPT TO EXPLAIN SUCH VARIANCE OF THE CONCERN, THE COMPONENTS ARE ADDED TO THE EQUATION IN STEPS. SOMETIMES ONLY ONE COMPONENT IS SIGNIFICANT ENOUGH TO BE CONSIDERED IN THE EQUATION, AND SOMETIMES SEVERAL ARE CONSIDERED IN COMBINATION. BECAUSE THE ADDITION OF A NEW COMPONENT BRINGS A UNIQUE CONTRIBUTION TO THE EXPLANATORY EQUATION, THE NUMBERS INCREASE STEPWISE.

Of interest in the final stepwise regression was the removal of a component which was initially the first entry into the regression equation. Alone, the variance on technical activity skills was responsible for 23% of the variance on a concern for assuring a positive experience. However, the variance from a unification of awareness and empathy, group management skills, judgement, environmental skills, and flexible leadership style is able to explain the initial 23% of the variance and another 11%. Hence, the duplicative contribution of technical activity skills is not necessary.

Although not strongly correlated, the addition of flexible leadership style is sufficiently synergistic in association with the other components to bring about the removal of technical activity skills. Essentially, experts with a high concern for ensuring positive experiences rated awareness and empathy, group management, judgement, and environmental skills highly in terms of importance, and rated flexible leadership style low. However, the most important fact is that technical activity skills, which might initially be considered of importance, are not at issue when the other components are considered compositely.

CONCERN: **Ensuring Positive Experiences**

Step	COMPONENT	R	R^2	
1	**Technical Activity Skills**	.48	.23	entered
2	**Awareness/Empathy**	.57	.32	
3	**Group Management Skills**	.60	.36	
4	**Judgement**	.63	.40	
5	**Environmental Skills**	.65	.42	
6	Flexible Leadership Style	.68	.46	
7	Technical Activity Skills	.66	.44	removed

PREDICTING NATIONALITY

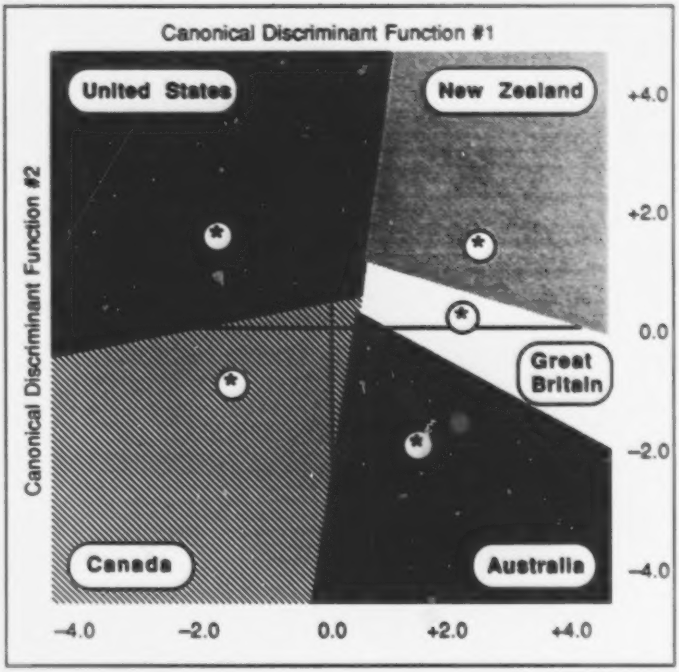
Since discrimination was attempted among five nations, four functions (groups of predictive variables) formed which were able to predict nationality with an overall success rate of 90.0%. Function 1 separated American and Canadian experts from the others. Function 2 enhanced the separation of Americans from New Zealanders, and Canadians from Australians. Not until Functions 3 and 4 were developed was there a hint of separating the British experts from the others.

Overall, nine errors were obtained, corresponding to an incorrect prediction rate of 10.0%. Three Canadians were wrongly classified as American and two Americans were wrongly classified as Canadian. One Australian and two New Zealanders were wrongly classified as British and one British expert was classified as a New Zealander. Retracing these errors to the original survey returns indicated that four of the nine incorrectly predicted respondents had not lived in their country of representation very long and had in fact either been born in the wrongly predicted nation or recently emigrated from there! Furthermore, the discriminant function analysis was correct on all second predictions, thus the equation achieved a 100% success rate if allowed a second choice.

The interesting aspect of the errors is that they occurred only between neighboring centroids (average locations): the U.S.A. and Canada, or Great Britain, New Zealand and Australia. No errors crossed North American borders, indicating that North America and a grouping of the other nations were strongly distinguishable from each other. Further support was provided this finding by the first function's strength at initially separating out the North American nations. Of practical importance here, is the ability to achieve prediction of nationality with 90.0% accuracy using the responses to 47 variables. The earlier analysis of variance on individual variables determined how the nations differed variable by variable. The discriminant analysis is able to separate these differences on grouped variables (functions) and establish how the national characteristics may be unique.

GROUP	Func. 1	Func. 2	Func. 3	Func. 4	Correct
Australia	+1.20	–1.93	–1.62	–0.61	92.3%
Canada	–1.45	–1.10	+0.83	+0.64	88.0%
Great Britain	+2.12	+0.38	+1.31	–1.24	93.3%
New Zealand	+2.41	+1.13	–0.39	+1.68	84.6%
United States	–1.77	+1.35	–0.60	–0.47	91.7%

THE NUMBERS ABOVE REFER TO THE DISTANCE BY WHICH EACH FUNCTION IS ABLE TO SEPARATE THE CENTROIDS (average central locations) OF THE FIVE NATIONS. THE OPPOSITE PAGE PROVIDES A GRAPHIC EXAMPLE FOR THE FIRST TWO FUNCTIONS.



⊛ Indicate centroids for each of the five nations

A territorial map of national centroids (average central locations) portrays the British centroid as the least discriminatory of the five. This means that the British experts were the most difficult to set apart from the other nation's experts.

The first function, which so strongly separated North American experts from the others, was composed of variables relating to litigation, problem solving, and insurance. High values of the litigation and insurance variables identify uniquely with the North American experts. Low values on the problem solving skills are unique to the British experts. Other variables on this function associate the British, Australian and New Zealand experts.

The second function contained variables relating to technical activity skills, maintaining positive user relations, and maintaining the existence of the experts' organization. High rankings on technical activity skills is indicative of New Zealand experts and low rankings is indicative of Canadians. High values on maintaining the organization, and low values on maintaining relations correspond to experts from the United States, while the opposite values were identified with the Australian experts.

The third function enabled the division between Canada and Australia. The rankings of safety skills, organizational skills, and creation of a professional outdoor leadership association were the critical variables in this division. Canadians place high emphasis on safety skills, low emphasis on organizational skills, and do not desire the creation of an association. Australian experts are opposite on all accounts.

The fourth function made discriminations on the basis of experts' responses compared to the British, in an effort to increase separations of the very similar Australians and New Zealanders. The British were lower than all other experts on ratings of problem solving skills, and lower on desire to increase public participation than the Australians and New Zealanders. Additionally, they were lower than the New Zealand experts on teaching outdoor skills and higher than the New Zealanders on organizational skills.

THE FIGURE ON THE OPPOSITE PAGE SUMMARIZES THE CONTENT OF EACH OF THE FOUR FUNCTIONS USED TO DIFFERENTIATE AMONG THE FIVE NATIONS.

RECALL THAT EACH RESPONDENT WAS ASKED TO SCALE THE IMPORTANCE (**Rating**) OF THE COMPONENTS AND CONCERNS, AND TO ORDER (**Rank**) THE COMPONENTS AND CONCERNS. THUS, THE TERMS **Rating and Rank** ARE USED TO ESTABLISH THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THESE SIMILAR COMPONENTS.

EXAMINED IN THIS MANNER, THE CONTENT OF EACH FUNCTION DEMONSTRATES THOSE COMPONENTS AND CONCERNS WHICH, TAKEN IN COMBINATION, ARE UNIQUE ENOUGH TO ALLOW A SUCCESSFUL DISCRIMINATION AND TO PREDICT NATIONALITY.

FUNCTION 1 = 10 variables

Protect from Litigation	Rating
Problem Solving Skills	Rank
Lower Insurance	Rating
Avoid Litigation	Rank
Awareness and Empathy	Rank
Awareness and Empathy	Rating
Accident Reduction	Rating
Physical Fitness	Rating
Learn & Enjoy	Rank
Instructional skills	Rank

FUNCTION 2 = 12 variables

Flexible Leadership Style	Rating
Maintain Existence	Rank
Flexible Leadership Style	Rank
User Relations	Rating
Group Management Skills	Rating
Search & Rescue costs	Rating
Technical Activity Skills	Rank
Environmental Damage	Rating
Self-concept and Ego	Rank
Public "High Risk" Attitude	Rating
Personable Traits/Behavior	Rating
Protecting the Environment	Rank

FUNCTION 3 = 12 variables

Safety Skills	Rank
Professional Association	Rank
Judgement	Rating
Philosophy and Interest	Rating
Group Management Skills	Rank
Physical Fitness	Rank
Safety & Well Being	Rank
Personal Traits/Behavior	Rank
Environmental Skills	Rating
Philosophy and Interest	Rank
Organizational Skills	Rank
Technical Activity Skills	Rating

FUNCTION 4 = 13 variables

Problem Solving Skills	Rating
Increase Public Participation	Rating
Teach Outdoor Skills	Rating
Organizational Skills	Rating
Resource Manager Relations	Rank
Environmental Skills	Rank
Self-concept and Ego	Rating
Safety Skills	Rating
Meet Learning Objectives	Rating
Ensure Positive Experience	Rating
Reduce Land Regulations	Rating
Instructional Skills	Rating
Professional Standards	Rating

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Experts were asked to rate and rank the fourteen outdoor leadership components for importance to practicing outdoor leaders. The experts were then asked if they would consider including these same fourteen components in the selection, preparation, and certification of outdoor leadership candidates.

RATING AND RANKING THE COMPONENTS

Safety skills, judgement based on experience, awareness and empathy for others, group management skills, and problem solving skills were rated by the experts to be the five components of greatest importance. Physical fitness, healthy self-concept and ego, personable traits and behavior, organizational skills, and environmental skills were rated as the five components of least importance. These findings were confirmed by independent rankings of the same skills and attributes, and can be explained by a common concern for safety. When asked to choose between participant safety and environmental protection, the majority of responding experts sided with safety. In rating the reasons for preparing outdoor leaders and in ranking their current concerns, the experts placed safety concerns over and above those of the environment.

The position of awareness and empathy, group management and problem solving skills near the top of the list is indicative of a growing interest in the field to inject more "soft" components into the preparation of outdoor leaders. Several experts, commenting on improvements they would make to the current programs, stated an immediate need to cut down on the "hard" components, especially technical ones, and to replace these with more people oriented training.

SELECTION AND PREPARATION

Despite the fact that physical fitness, healthy self-concept and ego, personable traits and behaviors were low on the list of importance, these same components were found to be high on the list of selection criteria. Along with motivational philosophy and interest, as well as awareness and empathy, the experts considered these to be desirable components for outdoor leadership candidates to have prior to their training.

Additionally, the experts preferred outdoor leadership candidates to have a solid base of technical activity and safety skills before applying to be prepared as outdoor leaders. It was suggested by a few experts that the way to improve current programs is to do away with the training of technical and safety skills and instead require that these components be obtained prior to enrollment. This would allow the preparation program to merely reinforce these components and to concentrate on training other components.

The interesting occurrence with regard to the experts' opinions on an outdoor leadership program curriculum is that all the skills were perceived as important content. Except for awareness and empathy, the attributes which were previously high on the list for selection were now low on the list for preparation. Many experts explained this in their comments by stating that the skills, mostly "hard" components, were more easily trained and assessed. Improvements in the attributes, although highly desirable during selection, were not to be easily gained during training and assessment and for that reason were excluded by some experts. The inclusion of judgement based on experience, and awareness and empathy for others were seen to be useful strictly from a perspective of the overall importance of these components to aspiring outdoor leaders.

TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT

Agreement among experts was present both in the order of preference for using the method and in the percentages to be devoted to each method. Experts preferred field trips as a primary method of training outdoor leaders. This is undoubtedly due to the current emphasis on experiential learning in outdoor programs. Many experts mentioned a need in preparing outdoor leaders to provide plenty of opportunity for the candidate to gain experiences and to reflect on those experiences with a practicing outdoor leader. This was confirmed by a near consensus from the experts on the option to include a practicum experience in the preparation process, and by their comments on the role of experience in outdoor leadership preparation.

All experts agreed that program trainers are the best qualified to assess the outdoor leadership candidates, because the trainers have had the closest contact with the candidates throughout the preparation process. Mixed responses were obtained for the other assessment methods. Many experts relied on outside experts as a second opinion of a candidate's leadership ability. Some thought that the followers in the group lead by candidates and other candidates acting as peer leaders would be most likely to obtain accurate assessments. Others felt that the candidates themselves should be responsible for knowing when they were ready to be outdoor leaders.

CERTIFICATION

Although experts remained divided on the issue of outdoor leadership certification, agreement was reached on certifying technical activity and safety skills. In fact, many commenting experts mentioned that they considered outdoor leadership certification to only represent the certification of these two components. Certification of some of the other components, such as instructional and environmental skills, received mixed opinions. Further analysis showed that for some skills, agreement among the experts to certify might be possible. The experts were not interested in certifying any of the attributes, especially judgement based upon experience. With regard to judgement they felt that since training and assessment of this component was so difficult, no certification process could possibly assure sound judgement in outdoor leaders.

DIFFERENCES AMONG NATIONS

Experts from the five nations were found to differ on outdoor leadership components and on current concerns. It was the unique combination of these differences which permitted a successful separation of the five nations by a discriminant analysis. The precise differences among nations are highlighted in this section; possible explanations for these findings take place in the next section.

The attitudes and approaches to outdoor leadership preparation of Australian experts most closely resembled those of the New Zealand and British experts. The Australians were interested in maintaining positive relations with other outdoor users and in creating a professional outdoor leadership association. Like the British, they were less interested in teaching outdoor skills than were the New Zealand experts. Unlike the British, they would like to increase public participation in outdoor activities. Interestingly enough, the Australian experts rated litigation lower than the North American experts. The Australians were also less concerned with maintaining the existence of the organizations than were the United States experts.

Along with New Zealand experts, the Australians placed a higher importance on organizational skills than the other nations' experts. They also ranked safety skills of lesser importance than the Canadians. The Australian experts chose not to select for safety skills, group management skills, problem solving skills, instructional skills, and flexible leadership style, choosing instead to include these components in their preparation curriculum. They also had a low preference for preparing healthy self-concept and ego when compared with the other experts. In terms of certification, they chose to certify group management skills, like the British, and not to certify environmental skills, like the New Zealanders. Siding with the British, the Australians also had a distaste for training outdoor leaders through simulation exercises. They preferred to assess their leaders using outside observers as a second opinion and were not concerned with the evaluations made by peer leaders or group followers.

Canadian experts were very much like those from the United States of America in their attitudes and approaches to outdoor leadership preparation. They had the same high concern for litigation, rising insurance rates, and were equally not interested in creating a professional outdoor leadership association.

They ranked safety skills higher, and organizational skills lower, than the Australians. They also ranked technical activity skills lower than the New Zealand experts, and ranked problem solving skills higher than the experts from Great Britain. Compared to the other experts, Canadians were more interested in selecting for safety skills, group management skills, problem solving skills, instructional skills, flexible leadership style and environmental skills when screening outdoor leadership candidates. Like the United States experts, the Canadian experts preferred the idea of using peer leaders and group followers as second opinions on the assessment of outdoor leadership candidates.

Experts from Great Britain had some similarities to experts from the other nations. Like the United States experts, they were less interested in increasing public participation in the outdoors. They agreed with the Australians in having a lower concern for leaders teaching outdoor skills, and agreed with the New Zealand experts in having a lower concern for litigation. The British agreed with both the Australians and New Zealanders in wanting to maintain friendly user relations, and in creating a professional outdoor leadership association.

The British also held problem solving skills and organizational skills in lower regard than the other experts. They were not interested in selecting for group management skills or problem solving skills, and preferred instead to certify group management skills and environmental skills. For training methods, they placed more emphasis on using field trips, and less on simulation exercises, than did the experts from the United States. They were content to rely on the second opinions provided by outside observers, and were not interested in the evaluations of peer leaders or group followers.

The New Zealand experts tended to follow the attitudes and approaches of the British and Australians. They were more interested in maintaining user and resource management relations, and less worried about insurance rates, than the experts from the United States. The New Zealand experts had little concern for litigation or diminishing natural resources either. Like the Australians, and not the British, the New Zealand experts would like to increase the number of people who participate in outdoor activities. They are also interested in forming a professional outdoor leadership association. One difference from both the British and Australian experts was noted when the New Zealand experts placed the highest concern on the purpose of leaders to teach outdoor skills to participants.

The New Zealand experts hold greater importance for technical activity skills than the Canadians, and greater importance for organizational skills than either the British or Americans. They have a lower interest in selecting for group management skills or instructional skills, and have a lesser preference for certifying group management skills or environmental skills, than the other experts. Like the British and Australian experts, the New Zealanders put less faith in the opinions of peer leaders and group followers. They would rather put the responsibility for assessment on the candidates themselves.

The experts from the U.S.A. were the most distinguishable of the five groups as their attitudes and approaches were often the most extreme. They had the lowest concern for maintaining relations among users or between users and resource managers. They had the highest concern for litigation, insurance premiums, and maintaining the existence of their organizations. Like the Canadians, they had less interest in forming a professional outdoor leadership association, and like the British, did not want to encourage increased public participation in the outdoors.

Also like the British, the American experts placed less importance on organizational skills, and like the Canadians, placed more importance on problem solving skills. They preferred to select for group management skills, problem solving skills and instructional skills. They were more willing to certify environmental skills than were the Australian or New Zealand experts. The experts from the United States allotted less time to field trips than the British, and chose instead to use simulation exercises to a greater extent than the other experts. They also played down the role of outside experts in the assessment process, and like Canadians, they preferred the opinions of peer leaders and group followers to a larger extent.

NATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Several differences regarding the fourteen outdoor leadership components and their inclusion in a preparation program were noted among nations. In terms of rating and ranking the components, only four components showed differences. Problem solving skills were considered by the British experts to be of little importance compared to other experts. Canadians placed greater importance on safety skills than the Australians, and lesser importance on technical skills than the New Zealanders. Australians considered organizational skills to be more important than the experts from the United States.

These differences may be due to several reasons. Of paramount explanatory power would be the concern for litigation. Recall that litigation was a major concern in North America, and that there existed a positive safety attitude among responding experts. Because of a concern for litigation, Canadian experts considered safety skills to be of the utmost importance. On the other hand, problem solving skills were not as important to the British as to North American experts. Recalling the correlation coefficients presented earlier, problem solving skills were considered more important by the litigation sensitive experts. The British have yet to experience liability problems like those in North America, and hence considered problem solving skills to be less important. Also, some experts commented that the nation of Great Britain was extremely slow at accepting the importance of such "soft" skills to outdoor leadership preparation.

The greatest concern among New Zealand experts was preparing outdoor leaders for the role of teaching outdoor skills to participants. Hence they ranked technical activity skills high on the list of importance. Leaders must be technically competent before they may feel comfortable during instructional situations and can teach such skills to others.

In terms of selecting outdoor leadership candidates on the basis of the fourteen components, several related differences were apparent. Canadian experts preferred to select for flexible leadership style, safety skills, environmental skills, group management skills, problem solving skills, and instructional skills in greater numbers than the experts from Australia. Furthermore, experts from the United States preferred selection of the latter three components in greater numbers than the experts from Australia, Great Britain or New Zealand.

The primary characteristics which separate Canada and the United States of America from other nations are related to liability, specifically the concerns for rising insurance premiums and growing litigation. Multiple regression analysis showed that litigation was significantly related to safety skills, flexible leadership style, problem solving skills, and group management skills. Experts from Canada and the United States preferred to select their outdoor leadership candidates on the basis of several of these components. This relationship with litigation may explain these North American preferences.

Along with the New Zealand experts, the Australians had a lesser interest in the certification of environmental skills and, along with British experts, had a greater interest in the certification of group management skills. The difference regarding group management skills is easily accounted for by the overall preference of the British and Australian experts to certify their outdoor leaders. Additional attention paid to this particular component is due to a growing awareness of the importance of "people" skills in both these nations. The lesser interest for certifying environmental skills stems from a lower environmental concern in Australia and especially in New Zealand. Recall that New Zealand was the only nation not to show evidence of a concern for diminishing natural resources.

The desire on the part of Australian and New Zealand experts to increase public participation is not present in the experts of Great Britain and the United States. These latter two nations contain heavy population densities by comparison to the former. The natural resources of Great Britain and the United States do not have the carrying capacity to support the additional impact of more users. Australia and New Zealand, on the other hand, have much greater opportunity for people to recreate outdoors. Adventure tourism for overseas visitors was mentioned as a major drawing card for these countries.

The experts from New Zealand, Australia and Great Britain were more interested in creating a professional outdoor leadership association, and in maintaining positive relations among users, than were the North American experts. This desire for a professional association comes from experts wanting to have control over their own interests. Currently in these three nations, outdoor leadership preparation is controlled by bureacratic agencies with close connections to the government sector. The experts commented many times that there was a need for developing an alternative system to standardize training and assessment as well as to do away with the "red tape which makes outdoor programs as institutionalized as indoor ones."

In terms of training, field trips were considered to be the most important method and were allotted the greatest amount of time. The British experts placed more emphasis on the time allottment for field trips than did the Americans. Additionally, the American experts had a preference for simulation exercises which the British experts did not. This difference between the British and Americans can be accounted for by the high number of outdoor pursuits centers in Great Britain. The opportunities for access to the adventure environments are greater and more common for this nation. On the other hand, the United States of America is the land of technological extremes, where simulations are a cultural norm. For example, the United States leads the world in simulation training for aircraft pilots, automobile drivers, and the militia. Americans, in some parts of their nation, cannot get easy access to adventure environments and hence have highly developed such artificial challenges as ropes courses to simulate the "real" adventure experience. Americans are more accepting and more promoting of simulation than the British for these reasons. The British prefer to "do the real thing -- what it's really all about" as several experts related.

In terms of assessment, the evaluations of program trainers were thought to be the most desirable method by most respondents. The British and Australian experts preferred to use outside experts for the second assessment. Americans and Canadians preferred to consider the assessments of peer leaders and group followers, while the New Zealand experts emphasized a preference for candidates assessing themselves. The British and Australian preferences can be explained by the structure of their outdoor leadership programs. These nations have programs which frequently use observers from outside the particular program, but from within the formal structure, to assess candidates. The North American nations do not have formally structured programs and, according to some respondents, are reluctant to share evaluations with outside professionals for fear of criticism. Lastly, the New Zealand preference for self-assessment is easily explained by the "do it yourself" attitude that was so often mentioned by responding experts.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The study examined attitudes and approaches to outdoor leadership preparation in five nations. The intent of the survey design was to determine whether those attitudes and approaches were influenced by the national characteristics of the experts' respective countries. Examples of these national characteristics are cultural, natural, social, economic, political, and geographical factors distinctive to the nations and to the people.

The summary and conclusions which follow are organized into five portions. The first portion deals with the experts' attitudes and approaches to each of the fourteen outdoor leadership components. These are presented in order of overall importance with differences among nations highlighted for each component. The second portion presents the experts' preferences for selection and preparation by component with highlighted differences among nations. The third portion presents the experts' opinions regarding the nature of training and assessment during the preparation of outdoor leaders, with highlighted national differences. The fourth portion gathers the findings on certification and highlights the differences. The fifth portion examines the national characteristics and concerns of each country based on the responses of the experts. Once again key differences are highlighted.

SUMMARY: Components

In terms of importance for the fourteen outdoor leadership components, all experts agreed that safety skills, judgement, awareness and empathy, and group management skills were the most important. Further down the list of importance, problem solving skills were the source of some disagreement among experts. The British experts placed less importance on this component and ranked it consistently lower than did any other nation's experts. Near the bottom of the list, organizational skills received similar treatment. This time, Canadian and American experts ranked this component higher in terms of importance, than did their counterparts. Low on the list were the attributes of physical fitness and healthy self-concept and ego.

In terms of ranking the skills and attributes of outdoor leaders, the same components appeared at the top of the rank ordered lists. Judgement, and awareness and empathy were the top two attributes of importance. Safety and group management were the most important skills. Differences were apparent for technical activity and organizational skills, which Canadian experts ranked of low importance; safety skills, which the Australians ranked low; and problem solving skills, which the British experts ranked of low importance. Physical fitness was ranked the overall least important component.

THE TABLE OPPOSITE PRESENTS THE FOURTEEN COMPONENTS ORDERED ACCORDING TO THE EXPERTS' RESPONSES. NATIONAL DIFFERENCES ARE HIGHLIGHTED ON THE RIGHT.

RATING THE COMPONENTS IN TERMS OF IMPORTANCE TO AN OUTDOOR LEADER WAS GIVEN ON A LIKERT SCALE OF EXTREMELY IMPORTANT (6) TO EXTREMELY UNIMPORTANT (1).

COMPONENT **RANKINGS**, MADE INDEPENDENTLY FOR SKILLS AND ATTRIBUTES, RANGED FROM FROM MOST IMPORTANT (1) TO LEAST IMPORTANT (7).

CONCLUSIONS: Components

COMPONENT	RATING	RANKING	SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES
SAFETY	5.68	* 1	* Canada higher than Australia
JUDGEMENT	5.55	1	
AWARENESS/EMPATHY	5.51	2	
GROUP MANAGEMENT	5.33	2	
PROBLEM SOLVING	* 5.25	* 3	* Canada/U.S.A. higher than G.B.
INSTRUCTIONAL	5.20	4.5	
TECHNICAL ACTIVITY	5.15	* 4.5	* New Zealand higher than Canada
FLEXIBLE STYLE	5.10	3	
PHILOSOPHY/INTEREST	5.07	4	
ENVIRONMENTAL	5.06	6	
ORGANIZATIONAL	* 5.06	* 7	* Australia higher than U.S.A.
TRAITS/BEHAVIORS	5.00	6	
SELF-CONCEPT/EGO	4.88	5	
PHYSICAL FITNESS	4.68	7	

SUMMARY: Selection and Preparation

Some disagreement occurred for the fourteen components and their consideration during the selection of outdoor leadership candidates. Overall the experts preferred to include attributes for the screening process, and agreed that the seven components of motivational philosophy and interest, physical fitness, awareness and empathy, personal traits and behaviors, healthy self-concept and ego, technical skills and safety skills should be considered. However, the remaining seven components failed to reach majority agreement. Five of these components had clear cut national differences associated with them, and the other two (judgement and organizational skills) were the source of disagreement. The differences in selection criteria stemmed primarily from Canadian experts placing greater emphasis on, and from Australian experts placing less emphasis on flexible leadership style, environmental skills, safety skills, instructional skills, group management skills, and problem solving skills. Furthermore, American experts sided with the Canadians, while British experts sided with the Australians on the latter three components.

Only one national difference existed as far as including the fourteen components in the curriculum of an outdoor leadership preparation program. Australian experts felt that the component of healthy self-concept and ego was less worthy of consideration than experts from the other nations. Nonetheless, not all components were considered for inclusion by a majority opinion. Four of the five attributes considered for inclusion in the screening process were not considered by a majority for inclusion in the preparation process. The trend overall appeared to allow for candidate selection based on desirable attributes and a few core skills, and then prepare those core skills and the remaining other skills with little concern for the attributes.

THE TABLE OPPOSITE PRESENTS THE FOURTEEN COMPONENTS ORDERED ACCORDING TO THE EXPERTS' RESPONSES. NATIONAL DIFFERENCES ARE HIGHLIGHTED ON THE RIGHT.

SELECT REFERS TO THE PREFERENCE OF THE EXPERTS TO SCREEN OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP CANDIDATES ON THE BASIS OF THEIR POSSESSING THE FOURTEEN COMPONENTS.

PREPARE REFERS TO THE PREFERENCE OF THE EXPERTS TO TRAIN AND ASSESS OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP CANDIDATES ON THE BASIS OF THEIR GAINING THE FOURTEEN COMPONENTS.

CONCLUSIONS: Selection and Preparation

COMPONENT	SELECT	PREPARE	SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES
PHYSICAL FITNESS	1	12	
PHILOSOPHY/INTEREST	2	11	
AWARENESS/EMPATHY	3	9	
TRAITS/BEHAVIORS	4	13	
SELF-CONCEPT/EGO	5	* 14	* All Others higher than Australia
TECHNICAL ACTIVITY	6	4	
SAFETY	* 7	1	* Canada higher than Australia
JUDGEMENT	8	10	
ENVIRONMENTAL	* 9	5	* Canada higher than All Others
ORGANIZATIONAL	10	6	
PROBLEM SOLVING	* 11	7*	Canada/U.S.A. higher than Others
FLEXIBLE STYLE	* 12	8*	Canada higher than Australia
INSTRUCTIONAL	* 13	3*	Canada/U.S.A. higher than Others
GROUP MANAGEMENT	* 14	2*	Canada/U.S.A. higher than Others

SUMMARY: Training and Assessment

In general, experience and the opportunity to gain experience were both considered extremely important by a great majority of the experts. This concept was reinforced by most experts' comments in favor of practicum opportunities for outdoor leadership candidates. In terms of the preparation process, however, the experts presented diverse opinions on the training and assessment of outdoor leaders.

The experts agreed that field trips were the top priority in training methods and that half the training time should be devoted to such experiential learning. Experts from Great Britain placed a heavier time commitment to field trips than did the Americans. Simulations as a training method was the topic of some dispute. Canadian experts felt the time devoted to simulation should be more than suggested by the Australians, and once again the American experts placed higher merit on using the method than did the British.

The experts also agreed that program trainers were the most valid contributors to outdoor leadership assessment, choosing to give this method a heavy weighting for overall assessment. Disagreements existed on the use of peer leaders, with Canadian and American experts showing equally high support for this method. In addition, British and Australian experts demonstrated a negative concern for using group followers to assess leaders, preferring to put their faith more in outside experts. The New Zealand experts placed their emphasis on self-assessment.

THE TABLE OPPOSITE PRESENTS THE METHODS OF TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT ORDERED ACCORDING TO RESPONDING EXPERTS. NATIONAL DIFFERENCES ARE HIGHLIGHTED ON THE RIGHT.

ALLOTMENT REFERS TO THE AMOUNT OF TIME WHICH THE EXPERTS BELIEVE SHOULD BE DEVOTED TO EACH METHOD.

WEIGHTING REFERS TO THE AMOUNT OF CREDENCE WHICH THE EXPERTS BELIEVE SHOULD BE GIVEN TO EACH METHOD.

CONCLUSIONS: Training and Assessment

METHOD	TRAIN	ALLOTMENT	SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES
FIELD TRIPS	1	* 1	* G.B. higher than U.S.A.
DISCUSSIONS	2	2	
LECTURES	3	3	
SIMULATIONS	* 4	* 4	* Canada/USA higher than GB/Aust
ROLE PLAYING	5	5	

METHOD	ASSESS	WEIGHTING	SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES
PROGRAM TRAINERS	1	1	
CANDIDATE'S SELF	2	* 2	* New Zealand higher than Others
OUTSIDE EXPERTS	* 3	* 3	* G.B./Aust. higher than Others
PEER LEADERS	* 4	* 4	* Canada/USA higher than Others
GROUP FOLLOWERS	5	* 5	* Others higher than G.B./Aust.

SUMMARY: Certification

Only two core skills related to technical activity and safety were considered for inclusion in the outdoor leadership certification process. Problem solving skills and all the attributes (including judgement) were excluded from certification. No agreement to include or exclude the other skills was apparent. Two interesting differences across nations were determined. New Zealand experts asserted that environmental and group management skills should not be part of the certification process.

Further to the topic of outdoor leadership certification, no overall majority opinion existed among experts as to the merit of certifying outdoor leaders. However, differences across nations told another story. The majority of responding experts from Britain and Australia favored certification, while a majority of those from New Zealand and Canada stood against the concept. American experts also had a majority opinion opposing certification, but additionally had a significant portion of experts who remained undecided at the time of survey.

Opponents of outdoor leadership certification stated that they would be less likely to hire certified outdoor leaders than would proponents. Furthermore, majorities of both opponents and proponents agreed that a certificate does not assure sound judgement on the part of the outdoor leader. Overall, a compromise seems present on the issue of certification. Although the experts were equally divided on the issue of certification, agreement was found toward certifying components. A majority preference by proponents to certify instructional, safety, and technical activity skills was present. A preference by opponents not to certify all the other components, means that the experts may be close to resolving the issue of certification. The advocates propose certification of a few components and the critics do not disagree. Additionally, the critics oppose certification of several components and the advocates also do not disagree. Although overwhelming agreement is not present, the stage has been set for a possible solution.

THE TABLE OPPOSITE PRESENTS THE FOURTEEN COMPONENTS ORDERED ACCORDING TO THE EXPERTS' RESPONSES. NATIONAL DIFFERENCES ARE HIGHLIGHTED ON THE RIGHT.

PREPARE REFERS TO THE PREFERENCE OF THE EXPERTS TO TRAIN AND ASSESS OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP CANDIDATES ON THE BASIS OF THEIR GAINING THE FOURTEEN COMPONENTS.

CERTIFY REFERS TO THE WILLINGNESS OF THE EXPERTS TO "GUARANTEE" THAT COMPONENT UPON POSITIVE ASSESSMENT.

CONCLUSIONS: Certification

COMPONENT	PREPARE	CERTIFY	SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES
SAFETY	1	2	
GROUP MANAGEMENT	2	* 6	* Australia/G.B. higher than N.Z.
INSTRUCTIONAL	3	3	
TECHNICAL ACTIVITY	4	1	
ENVIRONMENTAL	5	* 4	* Others higher than Australia/N.Z.
ORGANIZATIONAL	6	5	
PROBLEM SOLVING	7	7	
FLEXIBLE STYLE	8	10	
AWARENESS/EMPATHY	9	11	
JUDGEMENT	10	8	
PHILOSOPHY/INTEREST	11	12	
PHYSICAL FITNESS	12	9	
TRAITS/BEHAVIORS	13	13	
SELF-CONCEPT/EGO	14	14	

SUMMARY: National Characteristics and Concerns

National Characteristics were determined from the responses of the experts relative to their nationality. The responses considered included survey items on the purposes of preparing leaders and greatest current concerns. In their comments, the experts gave further opinions as to what national characteristics made their country unique when it came to preparing outdoor leaders.

The first important finding concerning these characteristics was related to the experts' concerns for environmental protection and participant safety. Safety and well-being of the participant was paramount throughout the study. Responding experts stated that a concern for litigation did not significantly influence their safety concern. However, a concern for diminishing natural resources was present for experts in all nations, except New Zealand. This prevented them from being strictly concerned with participant safety at the expense of environmental protection.

In responding to the items on purposes for preparing outdoor leaders and greatest current concerns, experts from the nations agreed on the top reasons: ensure positive experiences, teach outdoor skills, reduce accidents, reduce environmental damage, and ensure objectives are met. National disagreements did occur however. The Canadian and American experts had higher concerns for avoiding litigation, and lowering insurance premiums than did the New Zealand and British experts. Australian and New Zealand experts seemed more in favor of increasing participation rates than did the American or British experts. American experts had a lesser concern for maintaining relations with resource users and managers than did other experts. Lastly, experts from Australia, Great Britain, and New Zealand had greater concern for creating a professional association than did Canadian and American experts.

THE TABLE OPPOSITE PRESENTS THE THIRTEEN CONCERNS ORDERED ACCORDING TO THE EXPERTS' RESPONSES. NATIONAL DIFFERENCES ARE HIGHLIGHTED ON THE RIGHT.

RATING THE CONCERNS, IN TERMS OF AGREEING WITH THE PRIMARY PURPOSES FOR PREPARING OUTDOOR LEADERS, WAS GIVEN ON A LIKERT SCALE OF STRONG AGREEMENT (6) TO STRONG DISAGREEMENT (1).

RANKINGS OF CONCERNS WERE ONLY MADE FOR SEVEN OF THE RELATED CONCERNS, RANGING FROM MOST IMPORTANT (1) TO LEAST IMPORTANT (7).

CONCLUSIONS: National Characteristics and Concerns

CONCERN	RATING	RANKING	SUMMARY OF DIFFERENCES
POSITIVE EXPERIENCE	5.48	1	
TEACH OUTDOOR SKILLS	* 5.09		* N.Z. higher than Australia/G.B.
REDUCE ACCIDENTS	5.04	2	
REDUCE ENV. DAMAGE	4.78	3	
LEARNING OBJECTIVES	4.65		
POSITIVE RELATIONS	* 4.21	* 4	* New Zealand higher than U.S.A.
PROF. STANDARDS	4.12	* 7	* N.Z./Aust. higher than Can./USA.
PUBLIC ATTITUDE	4.03		
LITIGATION PROTECTION	* 3.46	* 5	* Canada/U.S.A. higher than Others
PUBLIC PARTICIPATION	* 3.46		* N.Z./Aust. higher than GB./USA.
SEARCH & RESCUE COSTS	3.26		
RESOURCE REGULATIONS	3.00		
INSURANCE PREMIUMS	* 2.54	* 6	* Can./USA higher than N.Z./Aust.

A MODEL FOR OUTDOOR LEADERSHIP PREPARATION IN NORTH AMERICA

By considering the ideas of experts from around the world, the study was directed at better understanding, and thus improving, the concept of outdoor leadership preparation in North America. A suggested model of outdoor leadership preparation, based upon the opinions of the experts and called the PEOPL (Preparing Effective Outdoor Pursuit Leaders) Paradigm, is presented here.

Outdoor experts have raised the point that North American programs could benefit from overseas ideas. This may or may not be the case. What is critical here is the consideration of national characteristics, namely a heavy concern for litigation. The outdoor leadership preparation programs of Australia, New Zealand, and Great Britain are quite different from those in North America. They operate within different governing structures, prepare leaders for different roles, and lack the litigation sensitive culture of North America. This is not to say that these programs have nothing to share, but rather their many unique approaches might require adapting, to fit the norms of Canada and the United States of America.

Due to the closeness of responses from Canadian and United States experts, as established by the statistical analyses, these two samples can be considered drawn from the same North American population. A unique concern for litigation placed the North American experts in a group by themselves, quite apart from the experts of Australia, New Zealand, and Great Britain. A paradigm for the preparation of outdoor leaders in North America has been developed from this study's findings. The paradigm is based on the fourteen outdoor leadership components and is presented in six parts: importance, selection, preparation, training, assessment, and certification. These preferences arose from an analysis of the data specific to North American experts only. The qualitative comments of the experts help to temper quantitative data presented. The data are in descriptive form, since no differences were found between the two nations as confirmed by inferential analyses.

IMPORTANCE

The importance of the fourteen outdoor leadership components to practicing outdoor leaders was quite similar as perceived by all experts . One slight difference involved environmental skills, previously low on the overall list, being placed higher than technical activity skills by the North American experts . The North Americans perceived that safety skills, judgement, awareness and empathy, problem solving skills, group management skills, instructional skills, and environmental skills were the most important components of outdoor leadership.

SELECTION

The North American experts would select for experience and all components if possible. They felt that attributes were more desirable than skills during the selection process, and placed physical fitness, personable traits and behavior, awareness and empathy, motivational philosophy and interest, healthy self-concept and ego, safety skills, and technical activity skills at the top of the list. Group management skills, flexible leadership style, organizational skills, and instructional skills were all low on the list.

PREPARATION

The experts were also interested in including several components in the preparation curriculum. Their top preferences were for inclusion of group management skills, safety skills, problem solving skills, instructional skills, environmental skills, organizational skills, technical activity skills, and flexible leadership style. Many of the attributes were considered to be low priorities for inclusion in the curriculum of an outdoor leadership preparation program.

TRAINING

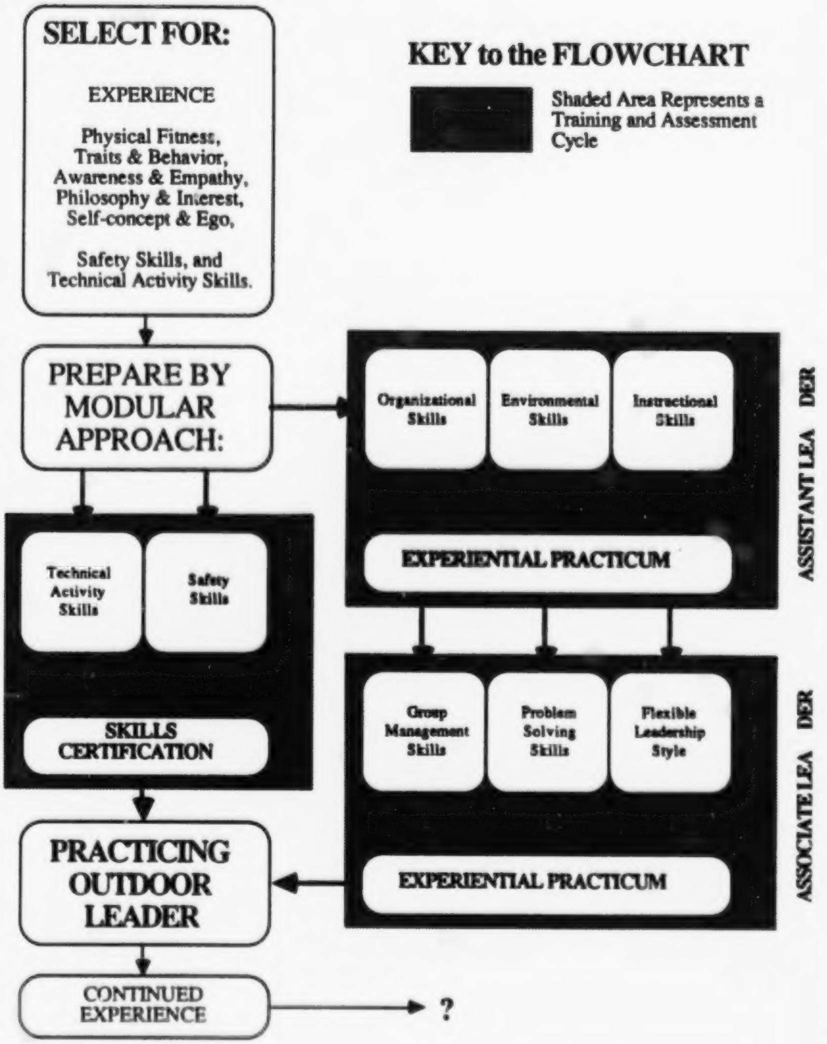
The experts preferred field trips for a primary method of training outdoor leaders. They allotted this method 45% of the time devoted to training. Many experts commented that they saw little differences between lectures and discussions, and that role playing and simulation were essentially the same thing as well. Lectures and discussions together received a further 32% and simulations and role playing were both given 23% of the time. The experts were devoted to the use of practicum experiences and suggested several be included throughout the preparation process.

ASSESSMENT

The experts placed the responsibility for assessment on the program trainers by weighting their assessments at 40%. They valued the opinion of peer leaders and the candidates themselves equally, awarding each method 17.5%. The remaining 25% was divided between the group followers and the use of outside experts.

CERTIFICATION

Outdoor leadership certification was favored overall by 37.1% of the North American experts. Support was shown for certifying the components of safety skills and technical activity skills only. Many experts commented that the certification of such skills should run concurrently with an outdoor leadership preparation program.


SELECT FOR:
EXPERIENCE
Physical Fitness,
Traits & Behavior,
Awareness & Empathy,
Philosophy & Interest,
Self-concept & Ego,
Safety Skills, and
Technical Activity Skills.
KEY to the FLOWCHART
Shaded Area Represents a Training and Assessment Cycle
PREPARE BY MODULAR APPROACH:
Organizational Skills
Environmental Skills
Instructional Skills
EXPERIENTIAL PRACTICUM
ASSISTANT LEADER
Technical Activity Skills
Safety Skills
SKILLS CERTIFICATION
Group Management Skills
Problem Solving Skills
Flexible Leadership Style
EXPERIENTIAL PRACTICUM
ASSOCIATE LEADER
PRACTICING OUTDOOR LEADER
CONTINUED EXPERIENCE
?

The PEOPL Paradigm Flowchart

The PEOPL Paradigm flowchart on the opposite page represents one interpretation of these findings. It is suggested as a guide to better understanding the process of preparing outdoor leaders. It is not recommended as the only approach.

The paradigm would be open-ended as indicated by the final question mark (?). Once practicing outdoor leaders have been prepared, they would be encouraged to seek further experiences. This is in keeping with the pattern of the "new" British Mountain Leadership Qualification, which many British experts praised for placing the responsibility for competence testing on the hiring agency.

The PEOPL Paradigm would follow a modular approach as advocated by the New Zealand experts, and as mentioned by several North American experts. The program would consist of several modules for each skill area. For example, safety skills might be composed of modules related to first aid, navigation, search and rescue, survival, weather interpretation, and temperature regulation. The suggested process by which outdoor leaders might be prepared would have two conjunctive streams. The certification stream would operate concurrently with the development stream. The former would concentrate on improving technical activity skills and safety skills to the point of possible certification. The latter would concentrate on developing the other skills which the experts were not in agreement to certify. Both such streams are suggested by the experts to be equally important in the preparation of outdoor leaders.

The development stream would take place in two stages. The first stage would involve preparing outdoor leaders in three skill areas and allow them the opportunity to further develop these skills through an "assistant" level leadership practicum. The second stage would involve development of another three skill areas and another opportunity of an "associate" leadership practicum. Several practicums were suggested by the experts with increasing responsibility gradually transferred to the outdoor leadership candidate at each opportunity.

In each stage of the development stream, and in the certification stream, there would be an ongoing cycle of training and assessment. The training and assessment methods would be arranged as suggested by the North American experts. These cycles would also involve feedback loops. If a candidate, or an advising assessor, felt the need to repeat a skill area or a certain module, it would be possible for the candidate to do so.

Inevitably, the entry qualifications would be delineated by the agency offering such a program and would be strongly related to their precise needs. For the purposes of clarity, only the components recommended by the North American experts are provided in this paradigm.

All fourteen components, except judgement, are part of the PEOPL paradigm. Judgement is excluded due to the many comments from North American experts who remain uncertain as to whether judgement is preparable in outdoor leaders. If sound judgement is considered to arise from reflection on experience, then the experiential practicums listed within the training and assessment cycles would be the place for such reflection to occur, under the mentorship of established outdoor leaders.

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